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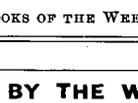

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 1, 1903.

The Week.

The Colombian canal situation looks more hopeful in the light of the latest rumors from Bogota. It is the old story of the news coming a full week behind the event, and in very vague form; but it seems probable that the Colombian Congress has not committed the blunder of letting the Hay-Herran treaty lapse under the time limit without provision for further negotiations. It is reported that Congress, while rejecting the old treaty, has given President Marroquin full power to renew negotiations and conclude a treaty. This opens the possibility that the new agreement will follow the Hay-Herran treaty very closely in substance, or even be identical with it. To be sure, the situation is complicated by an impending election in Colombia, but the reference of the canal dispute to the Executive greatly simplifies matters. Pending more explicit news, the general situation warrants every hope that a way will be found out of the tangle. Our Government wants that canal, and Colombia is even more deeply committed to the enterprise. Where two parties are both desirous of closing a bargain, they are likely to find a way.

The recent advance in the price of silver has brought the bullion value of the new Philippine peso within three cents of the American half dollar (gold). There is some trepidation at Washington lest it should advance still further and carry the peso out of circulation altogether. This will happen whenever its bullion value exceeds its legal tender value. How to explain this advance in silver is a puzzle. We would not affirm that our Commission on Exchange, which has just returned from Europe, has overdone its work, but we really think that it is time to call a halt. If Professor Jenks goes to China and gets into conference with the mandarins behind closed doors, anything may happen, and presently the Filipinos may be left with nothing better than American gold for the payment of wages and the transaction of their daily business.

By a singular combination of circumstances, the money markets of New York and London have for a fortnight been converging their attention on nothing but the fixing of "new low-record" prices for certain typical securites on the Stock Exchange. In London, British consols have for a couple of centuries been accepted as an index to the condition of investment capital. In New York, since the great promotion craze of 1901, securities of the Steel Corporation have been accepted as an equally important index; because, of all the thousands of millions of new industrial securities placed on the American market during and since that time, those of the Steel undertaking were most widely distributed among investors and for a time most highly regarded. Shortly before the Transvaal war, British consols sold at 114; at the opening of 1903 their price was 93. On Monday they were quoted for less than 88, the lowest price in thirty-seven years. In 1901, preferred stock of the Steel Corporation, paying 7 per cent. dividends, sold at 101⅞, and the common, paying 4, brought 55. Last week these two stocks sold respectively at 60¼ and 16. What has added to the interest in these foreign and home developments is the fact that, although the prices are so extraordinarily low, no eager inquiry from investors follows. Consols are selling 5 to 6 points below the price at which $160,000,000 were sold by the British Government last year; the Steel shares, 20 to 30 points below the price at which the bankers placed them originally on the market; yet, at these figures, the heaviest selling orders are ascribed to interests which had to do with placing these two securities.

There are numerous broad conclusions to be drawn from such a situation; but the most obvious is, that the "syndicate plan," as conceived in the theories of 1901, has broken down completely. Much has been made of the fact that a security of so high grade as British consols should have been sacrificed like the Steel shares, and for similar causes. But the grade of the security does not at all affect the matter, except so far as it may modify the violence of the declines. It has escaped the notice of many people that the $600,000,000 new consols issued in the three past years were for the most part placed with banking syndicates, who took the risk of selling to the public at a profit later. The chance invited turned out against the syndicate; their judgment of the price at which investors would be able and willing to take up the consols holdings was erroneous, and, in the end, strain on the money markets where the syndicate had to borrow capital to hold the unsold bonds, grew so severe that the holdings were turned at any price into cash rather than face a possibly still greater loss. In Wall Street the situation has been parallel.

It is suggested without a smile that Senator Hanna be appointed umpire in the dispute between the President and the union employees of the Government Printing-Office. Senator Hanna, so the Executive Board of the Knights of Labor declares, is the friend of Labor and of the President, and accordingly the proper arbiter when the two have fallen out. We fancy that Senator Hanna, should it come to this arbitration, will efface himself, for it would be awkward to say to his friends, the Knights of Labor: "Fellow-workmen, you are in the impossible position of asking that the supreme head of the nation submit his appointments and dismissals to private organizations. You desire to make of every union which has members in Government employ a kind of Senate. You ask that Foreman Miller be dismissed because his subordinates in the Government Printing-Office have not confirmed his original appointment or reinstatement. Fellow-laborers, your plea is bosh. There is no 'dispute' between you and the President. The fighting is all on your side, and you can stop it when you will —the sooner the better. In these matters the President does not argue, but decrees; he needs no umpire except with Congress, which may impeach him. This, fellow-unionists, is my decision, and remember that Mark Hanna is your very good friend." We presume that Senator Hanna would hardly care to speak as much truth as this even among friends, and we do not anticipate that the President will urge his campaign manager to accept so painful a refereeship.

Referring to the strike in the Cripple Creek district, which was called some weeks ago by the Western Federation of Miners, the *Colorado State Journal* calls attention to the watchwords of that union—"Faith, Hope, and Charity"—and then states that the Cripple Creek miners had absolutely no grievance. "It is a sympathetic strike pure and simple," says the *Journal*, "for the miners have no direct dispute with their employers, who are paying them satisfactory wages and working them satisfactory hours." In its attempt to live up to its published motto of faith, hope, and charity the Western Federation has succeeded in bringing the mining industry to a standstill at Cripple Creek, at Idaho Springs, at Durango, and at Telluride; it has "paralyzed" the business of the small merchants at the camps; and it has set the friends of the miners to inquiring into the quality of that "charity" that throws some thousands of satisfied miners out of work at the beginning of winter. The strike at Leadville in 1896, with the general demoralization that followed—the shutting down of paying properties for a long period, and the total abandonment of others not so well developed—is too fresh in the Western mind to permit a calm

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submission to the Federation's orders, despite its beautiful motto. The promptness with which the State ordered its militia to the scene in large numbers to protect property and prevent lawlessness is a sign of this, as it is a credit to Colorado's executive.

Samuel J. Parks again becomes the leading figure in the progress of organized labor by the action taken last week at Kansas City. The International Society of Structural Iron Workers, holding its annual meeting at that place, voted to sustain Parks in his contest with Mr. Buchanan, the President of the international organization, and with Mr. Neidig, the President of the local body. In other words, the organization endorsed a convicted blackmailer, who is temporarily out of State's prison and who is still to be tried under four indictments. It has deposed the officials who have sought to shield themselves and other honest men from contamination with the criminal acts of Parks, and to save the good name of organized labor from the disgrace attaching to his blackmailing operations. We can recall nothing quite so brazen and unbearable in the annals of organized labor. The worst enemies of the "union shop" could not ask for a better issue on which to continue the fight to a decisive battle in the long war waging in the building trades.

A notable contrast to the doings of organized labor at Kansas City is found in the action taken by the British Trade Unions Congress, lately in session at Leicester, England. At this meeting the Taff Vale decision came up for consideration. This decision was rendered about one year ago in a case where the workmen on a railway in Wales had violated an arbitration agreement which they had made with their employers. The latter brought suit against the union and recovered judgment. The union was not a "registered society," or, as we should say, an incorporated company. Nevertheless, the court authorized the sheriff to seize the union funds to pay the judgment. The decision created a great stir in England and the United States, and the principle seems now to be established in both countries that, for any violation of contract or infraction of law resulting in damage to property, the society committing the offence is pecuniarily responsible, whether incorporated or not. The method adopted by the Congress at Leicester to avoid such mishaps hereafter was to ask Parliament to pass a law declaring that the funds of trade unions should not be liable to seizure for any purpose except as authorized by the rules of the union itself. A resolution of this purport was passed, but not without strong opposition. Mr. J. Ward, representing the navvies or common laborers, said that Parliament would never pass such a law, and ought not to. It would, he said, be class legislation—a thing that wage workers ought not to seek, but rather to avoid. They could only claim their rights on condition of recognizing the duties they owed to the community. Mr. R. Bell, a member of Parliament, failed to see how he and other representatives of labor in the House of Commons could meet their fellow-members if they asked to be placed in a different position from all other persons under the civil law. The Taff Vale workmen had violated their own rules. Was it reasonable, he asked, that they should seek to avoid responsibility for their own deliberate act?

Gen. John C. Black, the new commander of the Grand Army, announced in Chicago on Sunday that it will be the policy of the organization to fight from now on for a pension for every veteran of the civil war more than sixty-two years old who saw sixty days of actual service—"and for their widows after them." Rich or poor, well or sick, moral or immoral, honest or dishonest, all who bore arms for sixty days, whether in the fortifications or in the field, are to step up to the Treasury and have a service pension paid to them. This is the logical outcome of the indiscriminate pension jobbery which has been going on for years. Cash payments for patriotic service in cases where the soldier is not actually in need have fairly demoralized the veterans. Altruistic devotion to one's country is to be turned into so much cash! Moreover, it is not asked as a favor, but is demanded as a right. For the benefit of the Spanish war "veterans" and the survivors of all our future hostilities is this standard set up for our patriotic young men to repair to. Gen. Black says that there was a service pension for the soldiers of 1812 and for the fighters in our inglorious Mexican war. Therefore, the saviours of the Union must also have it, no matter what the cost or the need, no matter what the ensuing demoralization, no matter what happens! And then, of course, the Spanish-war and Philippine veterans will have the right to demand the same. The proposition is indefensible and must be disregarded, whether in or out of Congress.

Undigested securities are not a circumstance to undigested political principles. Gov. Cummins of Iowa is exhibiting a peculiarly pitiable case of the latter. Sure of his interior hollow construction, he swallowed his own brave words about tariff reform. That was bad enough, and might well of itself have brought on appendicular colic; but the Governor also attempted to bolt whole the raw inanities and self-contradictions of his victorious opponents in the Iowa State Convention. Naturally, after that, his first campaign speech sounds very much like the cries of one in mortal pain. Gov. Cummins threatens woe to any wicked man or party that dares to say a word against the sacred principle of protection, but he also predicts that any Administration which does not do something to make trade conditions easier "will go down into history under the fierce condemnation of all the people." What will the "stand-patters" care for such vague fulminations? They may say that they do not know what Gov. Cummins means, and allege that no more does he himself, which is quite likely; but in any case they will know that they need not bother themselves about him. When the time comes, he will eat his words again with gusto. One thing, however, may be safely said about such a wholesale swallower. He ought not to attempt public speaking.

Gov. Yates of Illinois is bitter about the treatment he receives at the hands of the newspapers of Chicago, and is appealing to the country editors to "vindicate" him. He describes the Chicago papers as the "Trust press." It seems not to affect his judgment at all that most of the journals involved were friendly to him before the scandals of the Kankakee Asylum were revealed, and before he broke his promise not to regard Park Board appointments as political spoils. The appeal to the country newspapers as the organs of unfettered speech is amusing. They depend on the favor of the Republican machine for their State and county printing, in many cases their principal means of existence. In reality, Gov. Yates is either deceiving himself or trying to deceive the public. He is being attacked by the press of Chicago because it is to a large degree independent, and he has been an out-and-out partisan, as well as an unscrupulous Governor. His resentment against the newspapers is not unlike that of Quay, whose State Convention in Pennsylvania devoted its platform almost solely to denunciation of the newspapers. One was led to suppose that all the ills complained of in that State were due to the flagrant injustice of the press. Men of this type are sensitive; that is, they hate to be found out.

Gov. Pennypacker of Pennsylvania recently made a speech at Wilkes-Barre in which he once more attempted to defend the Salus libel law, his approval of which brought down upon him a perfect storm of ridicule. He says nothing now about heads of offenders dropping into baskets, or the drawing and quartering of critics and malcontents. Indeed, he speaks in a strangely apologetic tone. He says that the new statute is not really a libel law at all; that it leaves the whole matter of libel precisely where it was before; and that it only imposes

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the obligation of reasonable care in publication. This is all quite true, except that it has not in fact imposed any obligation which editors have felt bound to respect. But the Governor cannot pretend that he had any such view of the law when he urged its passage and gave it executive approval. He still must face his amazing memorandum filed with the signed bill. He thought he had secured an anti-cartoon bill which would protect Quay and himself and the rest. He found that they were all more mercilessly lampooned than ever before. Except to incite derision, the new libel law is almost a dead-letter. The Governor cannot revive it even to excuse it.

On September 22 there was submitted to the voters of New Jersey one of the most important measures which could possibly come before them. It was a series of Constitutional amendments radically reorganizing the judicial system of that State. The subject was one which had engaged the attention of the Legislature, and in it the bar of the State took the deepest interest. Addresses were issued and newspaper articles printed by the hundred for the purpose of arousing the electors to the vital nature of the issue. Yet, on the actual polling, it appeared that only about one-fifteenth of the voters of New Jersey cared enough about a project so nearly affecting their interests to take the trouble to cast a ballot for or against it. The amendments were defeated on this scandalously light vote, and the disappointed lawyers—not the bar as a body—are blaming the authors of the plan for maladroit presentation of it. This melancholy experience of New Jersey makes the scheme of having dozens of different laws referred every year to popular vote, as proposed by advocates of the referendum, seem truly chimerical.

Results of the test in Boston last week of the new primary law are, on the whole, gratifying to the advocates of the direct primary. The law worked smoothly, checked the practice of voting the members of one party in the primary of the other, and brought out an unusually large number of voters. This last is to the friends of direct nominations the most important point. Their argument has been that the voters would gladly embrace an opportunity to register their will, and not that of the caucus or of the boss at the primary, and they can cite the Boston result as evidence. More than 56 per cent. of the total vote of the city in the last election for President was polled, and the percentage would undoubtedly have been much larger, but for the absence of contests for the nominations among the Republicans. In the Democratic primaries, where there were several candidates, 75 per cent. of the vote cast for Bryan in 1900 was polled. How much better the nominations thus made are than the choice of the boss under the old method remains to be seen.

The Atlanta *Journal* is one Southern newspaper which does not believe that colored criminals are as numerous as the rabid anti-negro agitators would have the public think. With the exception of those who commit the crime of rape, it is certain that the negro wrongdoers are not capable of doing as much harm to society as are the white criminals. The depraved negro errs through impulse and the passion of the moment; the "constructive deviltry of the brainier white criminal" is not his. The *Journal* also feels doubtful whether the percentage of negro criminals in relation to the negro population is much greater than that of whites to the white population. These views the *Journal* expressed apropos of the attack on Booker Washington and Tuskegee in the Alabama Legislature. So far as we have observed, the violent antagonism of some of the Montgomery speakers has found little or no echo in the public prints. The intelligent men of the South are everywhere beginning to realize that it is impossible for their section of the country to exist in peace if the great mass of negroes are to live in a hopeless state of ignorance and degradation. If it is true that some graduates of Tuskegee have become offenders before the law, the same could also be said of Harvard and Yale. But the latter fact would certainly lead no one to argue seriously that because of a few black sheep the higher education creates criminals and should therefore be done away with.

The recent bye-election for a member of Parliament for Rochester, in place of Lord Cranborne, is the first success that Mr. Chamberlain has scored for his fiscal policy. It is a curious fact in connection with the election contest that Mr. Tuff, the Unionist candidate, when interrogated, declared that he did not know what Mr. Chamberlain's proposals were. "But," he added, "I am opposed to any tax that will increase the cost of living in any way whatever." The secret of Mr. Tuff's election lies in the fact that, while roundly repudiating any import duty on food or raw materials, he advocated a duty on cement. Rochester is a cement manufacturing town, and latterly there has been a considerable importation of cement from the Continent of Europe. One Rochester firm lost an order for 87,000 tons because an equally good article was offered by a foreigner at a lower price. In view of this fact, the correspondent of a Liberal paper, writing from Rochester a few days before the voting took place, said, "On cement the election may be lost or won." Mr. Tuff was asked how he reconciled his demand for free food and raw materials with his desire for a duty on cement. "What!" he exclaimed, "do you call cement a raw material? Go and look for yourself. Count the barges that bring the chalk and the clay. Go and look at the kilns where the grinding, the mixing, and the burning take place. Talk with the engineers who have charge of the works, and ask how much their machines have cost. Raw material, indeed! If cement is not a finished product, where will you find one?"

Civilized Russia has just witnessed the spectacle of Government troops escorting a mob which systematically sacked Jewish shops and maltreated their possessors. The rioting at Gomel was less bloody than that at Kishenev; in some ways it is more disgraceful to Russia. The Gomel riots originated, not in ungovernable religious fanaticism, but in some petty squabble between Jews and Christian traders. The Government was not, as before, in the position of failing to quell a riot; it, on the contrary, sanctioned the disorders and protected the mob in law-breaking. Such action will bring upon Russia the moral condemnation of the world. It also goes far to explain the indifference of the Empire to the ruthless massacre of its coreligionists in the Balkans. Russia does what she will with her own heretics, and by a kind of cynical logic lets the Turk have an equal license in dealing with his heretics.

A certain light is thrown upon the approaching "evacuation" of the southern Mantchurian provinces by two recent official acts. Russia has extended beyond the Amur River the jurisdiction of Admiral Alexieff, the new Viceroy of the East, and has applied to Korea for protection of timber-cutting concessions beyond the Yalu. That is, the Empire is apparently making a crown colony out of the northern Mantchurian province, which was to have been given back to China, and is claiming a favored position in western Korea. It is frequently said, and with some reason, that the world would be the gainer if Russia should occupy and govern all of Mantchuria. This country, since the principle of free ports has been admitted, has no reason to look askance at such an advance. But the Japanese have a very just cause to dread the activity of Russia on the Korean boundary. Korea belongs, geographically and commercially, to Japan's sphere of influence, as Mantchuria does to Russia's; Japan needs the peninsula as a market and as a possible field for emigration. The various attempts of Russia to get a foothold in Korea in the guise of trading stations evince a total disregard of Japanese sensibilities and contempt of Japanese resources.

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SHALL WE DISMEMBER THE COAST SURVEY?

The proposition to turn the hydrographic work of the Coast Survey over to the Navy Department has been so long urged and so often rejected that its revival at the present moment seems singularly inopportune. Twice at least within the last twenty years it has been exhaustively considered and adversely reported on by committees of Congress when all the circumstances were much more in its favor than they are at present. Prominent Treasury officials under the first Administration of President Cleveland were known to be so hostile to the management of the Survey that an investigation not only unfriendly, but very far from judicial, in its character, was undertaken with the approval of the President. The report set forth that abuses had crept into the management, some of them of long standing. The resignation of the superintendent was forced, and it only remained for Congress to take the necessary action to transfer the Survey. At the following session a committee of Congress, having Senator Allison at its head, made a thorough investigation of the whole subject. The result of this inquiry was to leave things as they were.

The effort to effect the transfer was renewed with great vigor in 1893. A majority of the Naval Committee was believed to favor the change, several of its members being warm advocates of the measure. But, after a careful hearing of all that was to be said on both sides, the Committee reached a conclusion adverse to the transfer. What has happened since to lead to a change? Nothing whatever. On the contrary, the establishment of the Department of Commerce with the Coast Survey as one of its bureaus removes the last reason for considering the subject. No work is more appropriate to the Department of Commerce than that of providing facilities for navigating our coasts. Charts and soundings are of the first importance not only to our coasting ships and our entire mercantile marine, but to all ships from abroad which enter our ports. Of course, a naval ship has as much need as a merchantman for these means of navigation. There is nothing required on a chart for naval use different from that required for the ordinary purposes of commerce. Accordingly, the Coast Survey was very naturally included among the bureaus to be transferred to the new Department.

Extraordinary though the proposition to reverse this action may now appear, the reasons against it are so strong and so near the surface that they hardly need to be cited if the question is to be decided on its merits. Looking at the matter from a purely abstract point of view, the question is whether such a work as that of making charts of our coast can be most efficiently and economically undertaken by the navy or by a civilian organization like the present one. Let us carefully weigh all that is said in favor of the proposed transfer. Hydrographic surveying is part of the business of a naval officer. He learns as much about it while at the Naval Academy as the absorbing character of his other studies will permit. The question whether, during the limited periods which he can possibly devote to such work, he can acquire as much skill as a civilian wholly engaged upon it, is a question which the reader can decide for himself. But the mere fact that naval officers can do the work, does not prove that it should be placed under the Navy Department rather than under that of Commerce. The arguments on the question whether naval or civilian methods are the more economical have, on the whole, been favorable to the civilians. But even here one important item has been too little considered, and that is the cost of the naval officer himself. The mere salary of the latter is but a part of what it costs the Government to educate and train him. In estimating his cost, we must include not only what is expended in his training and his off-duty pay, but his retired pay also. To reach a correct conclusion on this point, we shall probably have to double the pay of every officer of the navy from the time when he gets his first commission up to the date of his retirement. Of course, we must include in the estimate the millions being expended at the Naval Academy for the improvement of its facilities. To expend such sums in training officers to perform duty that civilians are now carrying on at far less cost, would be a most unjustifiable expenditure of the public money.

The slight reason for the employment of naval officers on civil duty which formerly existed has entirely disappeared with the lapse of time. For several years after the civil war we had more officers than were necessary for the management of our ships and the administration of shore stations. Under these circumstances there was no objection to their employment on such outside service as might be appropriate. But all this has now been changed. The cry in every department of the naval service is for more officers. We hear daily stories of the Department's inability to man its ships properly. Why should the service be deprived of its trained officers if this is the case?

The practice of foreign nations has been cited in favor of the proposed action. It is true that the hydrographic surveys of the leading countries of Europe are carried on to a large extent by their respective naval departments. But this statement needs to be supplemented by two others. Both the administration and the personnel of foreign surveys are to a greater or less extent distinct from those which relate to naval duty properly so-called. In France the surveys are all conducted by a special corps of "hydrographic engineers," and not by line officers at all. In England, by custom, the hydrographer of the Admiralty is permanently withdrawn from military duty. He can, of course, be restored to it if such a course is desirable, but practically this is seldom if ever done.

These features of foreign hydrographic surveys have always been successfully antagonized by our naval authorities, and we cannot suppose that they have changed their minds on the subject. The transfer of the Coast Survey to the Navy Department, whatever may be the intentions of those who favor it, practically means the administration of the Survey and the performance of its most difficult work by officers of the navy, each temporarily withdrawn from naval service proper for this special duty, which he is expected to abandon for life about the time when he has obtained a respectable measure of skill in its performance. A civilian organization under the Secretary of the Navy, however plausible it may be made to appear, is an impossibility in the present state of naval opinion.

The law organizing the Department of Commerce gave the President authority to transfer to it bureaus from other departments of the Government, that of the Navy included. There is good reason to believe that this provision was expected to lead to the inclusion of the Naval Observatory, and perhaps of the Hydrographic Office also, within the new Department. The transfer of the former is loudly called for by all the facts of its history and present position; and if any unification of the Government hydrographic surveys is to be carried out, it should be done by transferring the Hydrographic Office also, for it has no necessary relation to the Navy Department whatsoever, and properly belongs to the Department of Commerce.

THE PHILIPPINE OPIUM TRAFFIC.

The inquiry in regard to the status of the opium bill now before the Philippine Commission is symptomatic of a widespread ignorance. Although the bill is in some respects one of the most important measures which the Commission has yet had to consider, it has been very little understood or talked of in this country outside of certain influential church circles. The fact throws an interesting light upon the hollowness of the Imperialistic theory that we should improve all our home political methods and institutions by taking lessons from our colonial governments. In practice, the great bulk of the public is in as total ignorance of what our Philippine Commissioners are doing as they are in regard to affairs in Borneo.

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The bill itself, as was explained by Governor Taft in his speech of July 15, was drawn by Commissioner Smith, who made use of the results of an investigation previously carried on by Commissioner Moses. This inquiry showed that under Spanish rule all Filipinos were forbidden to smoke or use opium. The dealers were permitted to sell the drug only to Chinamen. The privilege of vending the drug to them was sold to the highest bidder in each province, while one "farmer" in Manila controlled the entire importation into the archipelago. On the arrival of the Americans these laws were suspended, and there were no restrictions upon the sale and use of the drug, save an import duty and some weak attempts of municipalities to suppress opium dives. In 1899 the opium imports comprised 120,066 pounds, valued at $328,713. In 1901 three times as much came in—no less than 369,037 pounds. In 1902 there was a great falling off, but in the first four months of this year 90,466 pounds were imported. Under the changed conditions the Civil Commission noted a sudden and alarming spread of the drug's use among the Filipinos, and particularly among the native youth. The Commission thereupon felt itself compelled to take some action looking toward the regulation of the opium traffic. The bill which Commissioner Smith drew has as its sole object—we quote Gov. Taft again—the restriction of the use of opium by the Filipinos. The Chinese are apparently either deemed to be beyond rescue or to have a prescriptive right to the drug.

In the first section of the bill the sale of opium to any American, Moro, or Filipino is absolutely prohibited. Only a Chinaman over twenty-one years of age can become a purchaser. In its second section the bill shows that Commissioner Smith followed the policy of the Spaniards in most respects. Here the exclusive right to import opium, or to sell it, or to give it away is lodged, for three years, in the hands of the "opium concessionary," the "highest and best bidder" for the privilege. In subsequent sections of the bill he is required to give a large bond and is hedged about by many restrictions, drawn with a view to preventing any violation or evasion of the main purpose of the law. He is entitled to appoint agents and sell opium in all towns where there are aggregations of Chinese, but he must in no way encourage "dens," for these are positively forbidden. One violation of his agreement is sufficient to cause the concessionary to forfeit his rights, as would two or three violations by his agents. Finally, the bill provides that the sums paid for the concession shall be used only for educational purposes.

As to the possibility of enforcing the law, there was a sharp division of opinion. Gov. Taft expressed himself as being hopeful that it would accomplish its object, but confessed that his belief was founded on the Spanish experience. The opposition, which was very strong in Manila, maintained that illicit sales could not be prevented, and that the net result would be the forcing of the drug upon the Chinamen, since the concessionary would naturally be anxious to spread the sale of it by every possible means in order to increase his profits. A petition against the bill, signed by 7,000 Chinese, was given to Gov. Taft, who discredited it somewhat by showing that the names included those of a dead Emperor, a stuffed monkey, and a good many others who have gone to the happy hunting-grounds. Still, it represented an earnest protest against what some honest Chinamen consider "a wholesale poisoning of their community." The petition itself declared that the monopoly "will increase the use of opium," "will debauch our countrymen," and "will encourage our young men to start the use of opium by surrounding it with an air of respectability."

The opposition to the bill comprised various elements. Besides the protesting Chinese, there was a group of men headed by an able Methodist clergyman, the Rev. Homer C. Stuntz, who represents a bona-fide moral antagonism to the Philippine Government's lending its official sanction to such a traffic. It is on all fours with the sentiment which forced Congress to repeal the law establishing canteens in army barracks, and is entitled to very great respect. As much cannot be said of the hostility of the Manila newspapers, whose advocacy of any cause is a serious blow to it. The adventurers who are opposed to Gov. Taft at all times and under all conditions could not, of course, let pass this opportunity to attack the man who stands for the Philippines for the Filipinos. These incongruous forces, however, were strong enough, with some aid from church sources in this country, to induce the Commission to lay the bill on the table. Gov. Taft himself admitted the existence of defects, and the measure was so open to misconstruction that its temporary abandonment was heartily welcomed by the Government and the Insular Bureau at Washington. At the same time a commission of three persons, the Chief Health Officer in the Philippines, Bishop Brent of the Episcopal Church, one of the opponents of the bill, and Dr. Albert, a Filipino physician, who is President of the Federal party, has been appointed to tour the Orient and study the opium problem from Calcutta to Canton. Until it makes a report, the main question at issue will not be revived; but the antagonism on moral grounds to a licensed opium traffic is likely steadily to increase as the problem is more clearly understood.

COTTON-GROWING AND THE COTTON INDUSTRY.

The price of cotton during the past year has been perhaps the most important factor in the industry of the civilized world, even surpassing that of steel. It is extremely important at all times, but special attention has been drawn to it in the past twelvemonth by reason of the high price that the staple has reached, causing a partial suspension of the spinning industry, both in England and in the United States. The range of price has been from 8.90 to 13.50 cents per pound. The price on call a week ago was 11.15, but for October delivery it was 9.60. The latter figure is much above the average of the past ten years. A difference of one cent per pound in the price of cotton makes a difference of $17,500,000 directly to the cotton spinners of Great Britain. To many of her operatives in the cotton industry it makes all the difference between full and partial employment—between comfort and misery.

The United States supplies 60 per cent. of the cotton used by mankind. Our last crop (1902-3) is reckoned at 10,758,326 bales of 450 pounds each. That of 1901-2 was a trifle less, and that of 1900-1 was considerably less. We have to go back five years to find a larger one. That of 1898-99 was a little more than 12,000,000 bales. In general terms, it may be said that our annual production of cotton has increased by three million bales in the past ten years, but that it has not kept pace with the demand. The proof of this fact is furnished by the rising price. In 1894 the price ranged between 5½ and 8½ cents. It did not reach 10 cents until 1900. Some part of the advance of the past season was due to the cornering of the market, but cornering is rendered possible only by the relations of demand and supply. Corners are costly enterprises, and are of brief duration in any case.

It is the settled opinion of the cotton spinners of Great Britain that demand has outrun supply. This belief finds expression in the renewed activity of the British Cotton-Growing Association, which has decided to establish permanent headquarters in Manchester and keep an open office for the transaction of business. At the present time, as we learn from the Manchester *Guardian*, the efforts of the society are directed to the west coast of Africa as a source of supply. At Lagos, on the Bight of Benin, the cultivation of the staple has been begun with some promise of success, but only three or four thousand bales are expected to come from that place this year. More encouragement has been found at Sierra Leone because the plant is indigenous; but there, it is said, everything depends upon cheap transportation, which is still wanting. If steamships will come and take the cotton and carry it to market free of charge, it

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will be possible to compete with American cotton, but not otherwise. "Without some definite guarantee as to freights," says the writer in the *Guardian*, "there is absolutely no inducement or protection for private speculation in the cultivation of cotton in West Africa." Southern Nigeria, which adjoins Lagos, is another field to which the attention of the Association has been directed, but the conditions there are certainly no better than at either of the other West African stations. Longing eyes have been cast upon India, also, but the *Guardian* tells us that the Government has turned a deaf ear to the appeals of the Association, Lord George Hamilton having declined to grant them an interview on the subject. This seems rather surprising. It must betoken either a great pressure of other business on the India Office, or a belief that it is not the function of the Government to advise the cultivators of Indian lands what crops they can raise to the best advantage. Egypt can produce more cotton than she is now bringing into the world's market, but the amount is limited to the strip of land that may be reached by the waters of the Nile—the small delta below Cairo and a narrow ribbon above it.

The *Guardian's* article we take to be a summing up of the latest information within the Association's reach on the subject of new supplies of cotton. It concludes thus:

"Although the reports from the Association are necessarily indeterminate, they appear to give on the whole good reason for hope. Those uninformed enthusiasts who look for a colonial crop equal in size to the American within a few years may be disappointed with the signs of progress. It must be understood, however, that the object of the Association is not to substitute so much as to supplement; and if—to name quite arbitrary figures—they could five years hence produce an additional crop from all sources that would add a million or even half a million bales to the world's provision, they would have done well. But such a result as this could hardly represent a stationary state of things, and if we get so far the possibilities of the future are immense."

It is evident that there exists in the world no conjunction of soil, climate, transportation, labor, capital, and intelligence for the production of cotton comparable to those of the Southern United States. To all intents and purposes we have a monopoly of this indispensable article, and nothing can take it from us but our own supineness and folly. It is not at all likely that we shall lose it. The capacity of the Southern States for cotton growing is enormously greater than the largest crop that ever has been gathered. Whether the growth will keep pace with the demand in years to come is not so certain. That the rise in price will stimulate the planters to increase the cotton area and lead to larger expenditure for fertilizers may, however, be reasonably expected.

But another fact must be quite as carefully kept in mind. The pressure on cotton consumers, and on the cotton manufacturing trade, would be severe enough if the price were left to regulate itself under natural laws. Prices of cotton goods have not risen in proportion to the rise of the raw material. At some figure, the margin of manufacturing profit disappears and becomes a loss. If consumers of cotton goods will not pay an advanced price for their goods, the spinner cannot pay it for his cotton; and a resumption of this year's early efforts at a corner would, if long protracted, bring about such shrinkage in demand as would eventually prove disastrous to the cotton producer himself. This is the real danger involved in the theory, very prevalent in cotton-growing regions, that the spinning trade must take the cotton crop, and the whole of it, at any price whatsoever. This is a mistake, as the shut-down of July and August proves; but of course nothing but experiment can tell at what point consumption will be checked.

A YEAR OF THE CHILDREN'S COURT.

The Court for Juvenile Offenders which was established by the revised city charter in 1901 has now completed its first year, having begun work on September 2, 1902. Despite the forebodings of District Attorney Jerome, who opposed its establishment, it has proved to be of constantly growing value, if only because the prisoners brought before it are kept from contact with hardened criminals. The whole atmosphere of the little building at the corner of Third Avenue and Eleventh Street is vastly different from that of the old courts, every effort being made to keep the courtroom bright and cheerful. So evident, indeed, have been the benefits of separate trials for minors, that a similar institution, authorized by the Legislature last winter, was opened in Brooklyn some three weeks ago. To it has been appointed Mr. Robert J. Wilkin, who was for many years superintendent of the Brooklyn Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. As in the Manhattan institution, everything which suggests the prison is kept in the background as much as possible. The detention rooms, for instance, in no way resemble cells.

In the first twelve months of the new Manhattan court's existence, 7,447 children were arraigned, of whom 4,368 were convicted. Of these, only 1,527 were committed on criminal charges or because of improper guardianship. The rest were placed on parole or had their sentences suspended. The offenders may be classed as follows: Mischievous children, disorderly children, those of distinctly criminal tendencies, and those who are misbehaving because neglected by unworthy parents. In the first class belong those who break windows, build street bonfires, and otherwise become nuisances. Before releasing them the judges take pains to explain to them the nature of their wrongdoing. To the disorderly children belong those who run away from home because of their impatience of restraint, or who are on the road to crime.

Among these the judges (of whom there are five, from the Special Sessions Court, sitting in succession), find it necessary to discriminate carefully. Strange as it may seem, there are many parents of scanty means, desirous of having their children educated free of cost, who are perfectly willing to prefer charges of waywardness against their own children. By this means they can shirk the responsibility of caring for them, and at the same time have them taught a trade. So flagrant was this evil that the judges induced the last Legislature to pass a law giving them the power to compel parents, under threat of imprisonment, to pay a sum not exceeding two dollars a week for the support of each child placed in a city institution. While this law has been in effect only since September first, there is every indication that it will check this tendency to make the city stepmother to hosts of children who properly belong at home. The judges have also brought about the passage of legislation making purchases by junkmen from children a misdemeanor. This law was necessitated by the discovery that many children were being taught by the junkmen to steal from vacant houses, the subway works, etc., pipes, tools, and other articles, which were eagerly purchased for a few cents. It is safe to say that the public owes both of these laws to the establishment of the separate children's court, in which the whole conditions of juvenile crime can be studied as they never could be when the children were only a few of a large number of offenders passing in review.

The most difficult problem, of course, concerns the children who have just got started on the criminal path. Here a great deal depends on the probation officer; and that official reports that 15 per cent. of the 639 children released on probation between September 1, 1902, and July 1, 1903, had to be committed to institutions because they violated the provisions of their parole. Of those so committed, the majority were under twelve, which goes to prove that for children under that age the probation system is of questionable value. It is also interesting to note that of these 639 probationary offenders only 23 were girls. Of the boys 285 came into court because of larceny, and 125 for disorderly conduct. In most cases the parole lasts two or three months, only six having been committed for a year or longer. Where a child is reparoled more than three times, it is generally found to be necessary to send him to a reformatory; but the judges seek wherever possible to

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avoid commitments. Children on parole are required to report to the probation officer once a week, and to the court at stated intervals. Each time the delinquent reports, his or her record in full is placed before the judge. In the Brooklyn court, where Judge Wilkin sits permanently, there are three probation officers, one for Catholic children, one for Protestants, and one for those of the Hebrew faith. The Manhattan magistrates believe in changing the judges, because they find the work too great a strain on the sympathies of one man, who would, they believe, soon become too tender-hearted or too callous. This has not been the case in Chicago, where Judge Tuthill still presides most satisfactorily over what is believed to have been the first separate children's court in this country. Judge Tuthill has, however, fewer offenders to deal with than the Manhattan court, and has more probation officers.

It is the principle of prevention as well as punishment which distinguishes these courts, and which marks them as part of the great movement everywhere going on to modernize the treatment of offenders. What the judges must ever consider is that it rests with them largely whether the child is to become an enemy of society or a valuable citizen. Hence the need for great wisdom, patience, and sympathy, particularly as the court must often protect a child from wicked parents or debased guardians. The Manhattan judges are not alone in their opinion that the older the courts the more light they will throw upon the whole question of juveniles and the law. They have already, for instance, discovered many shortcomings in our compulsory-education legislation.

BRITISH AND AMERICAN SCIENCE.

A fortnight ago, in speaking of Lockyer's appeal to his countrymen for the support of British science, we showed how to apply the old saw that the way to get the best performance from a human being is to encourage him. To-day we will try applying the same maxim in speaking of the future of American science. We wanted to allow the Anglophobists (who never allow the sacred fire to die on their hearth) ample time to dispute our proposition if they could —the proposition, we mean, that for three hundred years not a single conception has taken sovereign preëminence in science that has not been largely—in most cases, even without contest —of British parentage. But our proposition remains undisputed. Its substantial truth seems to be tacitly acknowledged.

Whatever could be said to blunt its point has, no doubt, been indicated in a letter in another column from a rarely accomplished and ingenious scholar, signing himself "H. T." Whether this subtle writer is serious, or whether he is only making believe that he opposes us, our readers can guess as well as we, if they note that he does not explicitly deny our proposition, and that he throws in our way two or three very pertinent suggestions in support of it. Certainly, two more striking examples of what are *not* conceptions of sovereign preëminence in science than those he furnishes would be sought in vain—the theory of numbers and the theory of functions. A famous mathematician, being asked why he should be so in love with the theory of numbers, replied that he loved it because it was a pure virgin that never had been, and that never could be, prostituted to any practical application whatsoever. Not only no *practical* application, but (so far as one can look into the future) no *scientific* application, either, is likely ever to be made of one or other of those two theories, outside of pure mathematics itself. In short, they are as narrowly technical as anything can be. They are Leibnitzian monads whose activity, intensely interesting in itself, is imperviously secluded from the business of life and from the main business of science.

Only compare this isolation with the loud resonance awaked in every harp and organ of science by those discoveries which truly have been sovereignly preëminent through science—the inductive philosophy; the corpuscular philosophy with the atomic theory and its progeny; universal attraction; the differential calculus (certainly discovered by Newton, not certainly also by Leibnitz after enjoying Newton's conversation); the theories of elasticity (Boyle and Young), of heat as *vis viva* of molecules (Bacon and others), of electricity (Gilbert, Faraday, etc.), of light as transverse vibrations (Young) and transverse vibrations of an electromagnetical kind (Maxwell); natural selection (Darwin and Wallace); universal evolution (Spencer). We forgot to mention one of the greatest discoveries of all, made by an humble clergyman of the Church of England, Gay—the discovery that the association of ideas is the autocrat (or, at least, the first of two consuls) that governs all the activities of the human mind, so far as they are subject to any mental law. For the theory of numbers and the theory of functions it can be said that they far surpass chess both in beauty and in their broadly intellectual character; but to call them ideas of sovereign preëminence in science would be to fall into one of those extravagant statements to which mathematicians are only too prone, as when Henry John Stephen Smith—one of the protagonists of the theory of numbers, for all his being an Englishman—spoke of a decline in a people's mathematical activity as if it differed from all other historical developments in having but a single possible cause.

We have to thank "H. T." for another suggestion contained in his remark that, of the pure mathematicians of England's last half-century, the two most prominent were the Hebrew Sylvester and the half (or quarter?) Russian, Cayley. To be sure, there is a simpler and more conclusive proof that the singular relation which Great Britain has sustained to science has not been due solely to Teutonic blood, namely, the density of the entirely uncultivated German (if this species be not quite extinct). The days are very, very distant when it will be possible to disentangle the causes of national character; but as to the matter in hand, there is one cause that strikes any good American observer of intellectual English society. Montesquieu, who possessed an intimate knowledge of so many countries (he was, by the way, a Foreign Member of the Royal Society), put on the title-page of his immortal book this motto:

"Prolem sine matre creatam"

(offspring produced without a mother). A close friend asked him in what sense this had any particular application to the 'Esprit des Lois.' He replied, after some reluctance: "A truly great work must owe its birth not only to a man of genius as its father, but also to a society of intellectual freedom as its mother." Probably in no country is thought of almost all kinds so completely untrammelled as in England. The chief external hindrance, everywhere, to supremely original scientific speculation lies in a certain spirit to which, for want of a better word, we may give the name of *pedantry* (one could hardly call it *obscurantism*). We mean that spirit which caused Poggendorff to refuse for his journal the now far-famed paper of Mayer about the thermodynamics of gases; that spirit which for a whole generation silenced, through the German universities, every contribution to philosophy that was not Hegelian, and which to-day as completely silences there everything that *is* Hegelian.

And this brings us round to the brief word we proposed to say to the young scientists and philosophers of America. Good and sufficient reasons have in the past acted to conceal the scientific genius of the American people in money-getting and in settling the order of things in this country. But now that those reasons are losing their force, and that you are turning to pure science, above all trust to your own wings. Beware of excessive subservience to the opinions that happen to be in vogue in the German universities. Imitate the Germans in those things that deserve imitation. Emulate them, for example, in that which has contributed not a little to German scientific leadership, their national self-confidence; in their persistency as well. Those two qualities have made that people the world's leader in all *Fach-Forschung* (if we may be al-

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lowed to coin the word)—a preëminence all the prouder that it is founded on two moral virtues. You have infinitely more reason to believe in your own scientific powers than they had, one brief century ago. In the nature of things, you will soon outgrow your school-boy deference to your master's *dicta*, and, trusting to your own genius, will surely develop a new and more philosophical type of scientific man.

GAY PARIS IN LIQUIDATION.

With the suspension of the opera balls the legend of Paris as a centre of gilded dissipation should vanish. These public masked balls were in a sense the very symbol of Paris the Casino of Europe. They were first organized as a kind of public echo to the private gallantries of the court of Louis XV.—the most frivolous of an age in which refined dissipation was reduced to a code. Under the First Empire, Bonaparte's adventurers supported this peculiar institution with an imperial lavishness which was exceeded only by the parvenus of the flush times of Napoleon the Little. Since Sedan they have been the dreary form of an outworn gayety. Instead of the courtiers, the dragoons, and the gilded youth of earlier times, one saw a curious mixture of Parisian counter-jumpers depressed by the "louis" taken at entrance, of British and American fathers of families marvelling that it was all so little shocking, of South Americans noisily throwing their money about, with a sprinkling of French college lads and American students saddened that the reality of an opera ball fell so far short of the legend. As for the women, the change was even more marked. From the heroines of the Third-Empire *chronique scandaleuse*, and all of theatrical Paris, the dance had descended to paid nobodies, among whom the outraged British matron and her brood moved, masks tightly clutched, while the German *Hausfrau* and the American wife "doing Paris" bore her uneasy company. A performance solemn and inept even in its improprieties has been discontinued because it no longer pays.

For many years the legend of a Parisian world *où l'on s'amuse* has been kept alive only by the surplus money and deficient brains of foreigners. Long ago the Parisians withdrew their support from the dancing gardens and the more notorious cafés. The result was that any glamour which dissipation might have gained from Parisian taste and wit was absent, and travellers paid their good money, with much sacrifice of self-respect also, for tasting a life that the true Parisians heartily scorned. Naturally those who came to see the Anglo-American or the Russian Paris, and detected the cheat, declined longer to be humbugged.

Meanwhile the restaurants, the Maisons Dorées and the Cafés Riches, which were frequented by the old-school *boulevardiers*, and turned away all but the notorious, the wealthy, and the extravagant, have one by one closed their doors. Every year Paris loses something of its old preëminence as a city of pleasure, and the time has come when the primrose path for the spendthrift has as many ramifications as there are great cities and human follies. Balzac used to insist on a certain freemasonry, in the sensual life, which had its capital on the Seine. To-day he would feel differently. The recklessness and the genius for debauch of the hero of 'Peau de Chagrin' are no longer Parisian characteristics. Parisian dissipation has taken on the dull and uniform tone of the random life elsewhere. The irrational squandering of one's gold and one's self may as well be practised in New York, St. Petersburg, or any one of a score of great cities.

If a certain school of metropolitan economists be right, the discontinuation of the opera balls should be marked by a shrinkage of the national credit. Many times the theory that money can circulate normally only when much of it is spent profligately has been seriously maintained. As if to give the lie to the theory that she is rich only on condition of remaining the bawd of Europe, Paris adds a new beauty as fast as she drops an old infamy. Year by year that unparalleled prospect along the Seine becomes richer and nobler, without the loss of any of the precious monuments of old time. Every year, too, Paris becomes a more delightful residence for those who value the things of art or of the mind. As she loses her title of the Casino of Europe, she strengthens that of the new Athens.

Nor do we believe that, with the passing of the legend embodied in the opera balls and in a dozen other institutions of organized profligacy, Paris loses any real gayety. The *verve Parisienne* was never prominent among these syndicated pleasures, nor was it offered at a price to the moneyed rabble of immigrant amateurs of "la vie en rouge." The gayety of Paris is at every family dinner table, in the studios and small shops—everywhere that two or three Parisians meet. And that unique sprightliness of the mind which is the just pride of all Frenchmen, is still to be found in Paris, from the quais where clothes are washed to the salons where academicians are still agreeable to pretty women. That is the real "gay Paris." It will live on as long as Frenchmen are Frenchmen, although it be unknown to the cosmopolitan herd whose growing parsimony or prudence is forcing the other "gay Paris" into liquidation.

ENTERTAINMENT FOR MAN AND BEAST.

Every one of the half-dozen popular magazines contains at least one story of which the hero is beast, bird, or fish. Mr. John Burroughs's protest in the *Atlantic* in behalf of his dumb friends, has passed unheeded. A whole school of writers keeps step with the 'Jungle Book' man or struggles along the trail of the 'Sand Hill Stag.' A literary tendency is clearly manifest, and we see no reason why it should stop at the terrestrial fauna. The flora is as yet unexploited, and since we have had the tragedy of the brook trout and the pathos of the pachydermata, why not also the miseries of the edible mushrooms, the loves of the lotuses, and the tragedy of a dead beet? Erasmus Darwin and his botanical epic are pretty well forgotten, and the way lies open for a literary adventurer to publish as many short stories as there are leaves in Vallombrosa. Nor need the process stop at the organic creation. Two scientists of our acquaintance only ceased from writing a comedy of the chemical elements because they found (as had the British matron before them in Darwin's 'Loves of the Plants') that the matrimonial complications necessitated by the allegory passed all bounds of morality and availability.

The chemical comedietta was intended for children, and it seems that pretty much all animal stories are planned for the very childlike. For the animal heroes and heroines are strangely unlike any animals that the average reader knows, and amazingly like those characters of the dime novel and Sunday School book which the adult reader usually scorns. We have tested it high and tested it low. Occasionally a Mr. Jack London strikes the note of veracity, as Mr. Kipling knew how to invest jungle life with poetry, or Mr. Joel Chandler Harris to fill the B'rer Rabbit stories with shrewd wisdom and exuberant humor. But this is the exception. What may be called the beast tale of periodical literature possesses neither veracity, poetry, wisdom, nor humor. The question, Why do people read these stories? only raises the more impenetrable mystery, Why do people read most of the magazines at all? The answer is possibly that people do not read the magazines, but look at the illustrations; and that the popularity of the new school is simply a tribute to the pencils of Mr. Thompson-Seton, Mr. Heming, Mr. Bull, and others.

But if there is doubt about the demand for sentimentalized quadrupeds, there is no doubt as to the supply. We feel, indeed, that the production is too copious and uniform to be the result of individual enterprise, and we suspect in the whole matter the machinations of a syndicate which was first called Seton-Thompson and then, for purposes

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of reorganization and evasion of the law of copyright, was renamed Thompson-Seton. Upon this hypothesis the recent remarkable flotation of animal stories falls under familiar commercial processes. Imagine a resourceful and unscrupulous syndicate which has gained possession of all the undigested securities of the fiction market. Obviously, the whole supply of rejected articles might have been got at a base price. What would the substance of such stories be? Of course, the humdrum pathos and conventional melodrama that lie within the observation and mental range of the writers. Such an accumulation would appear wholly worthless from all points of view. But here is where the genius of our supposititious syndicate comes in. You can always unload a bad stock-market security by changing its name and denomination.

It would be superfluous, and in the present market conditions manifestly unkind, to recall the instances of stocks which have brought better prices every time a consolidation reduced their actual security. Upon this pregnant idea what we may call the Animal Story Trust based its fortunes. One may imagine the process of conversion prior to marketing. A dreary story of the death of an old woman in a country village is to be sold. For old woman read Sheesquaugh the Cougar, for village read "bleak, crumbling precipices iridescent with such colors as are only seen under the desert sun," votes the board of directors, and the editors tumble over each other to buy. Again, we imagine the syndicate's blue pencil cancelling the title, "Algernon's Heart Sorrows," and rewriting it, "Plunges of Pete the Cayuse," with the note, "Printer, substitute Pete for Algernon." And the publishers who broke Algernon's creator's heart, compete for "Pete" at the top of the market.

Now, it is far easier to expose this method of unloading undigested copy than it is to stop it. We may pity the editors and publishers, we may warn them of the impending depression when the underwriters shall be confronted with unmanageable blocks of manuscripts, and Cuvier shall have been exhausted from cover to cover; but we cannot restrict their right to buy at their own risk. Refusing to read Algernon travestied as Pete is only a partial measure. In fact, no effective protest is possible unless the animals should organize a protective association, and appeal to the humanity of the syndicate. One may imagine a sensible "cayuse" complaining as follows: "What right had you to impute to me disgusting human sentimentalisms? What warrant had you to deprive me of my inborn horse sense and put upon me scarcely human idiocies? If you cannot respect yourselves, gentlemen, at least respect the feelings of a horse of good manners, sound nerves and sane habits." That such would be the sentiment of the beasts reassembled in Æsopian council there can be no doubt. And, failing their voice, we make the plea of our worthy but silent friends our own.

Correspondence.

DEFECTS OF THE CENSUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to corroborate your statement that the census statistics regarding capital employed in manufactures are untrustworthy. In a communication published in the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*, June, 1900, I quoted Special Schedule, No. 15, addressed to manufacturers of hosiery and knit goods, as follows:

"Inquiry No. 4, Capital invested? The answer must show the total amount of capital, both owned and borrowed."

Commenting on this, I could not but point out that the entire statistical value of the answers as to the amount of capital invested in the industry was destroyed by including borrowed money as capital. The relations of capital to product, and both to profit, are obviously not to be arrived at from the census tables based on data furnished in pursuance of the above inquiry.

Inquiry No. 9 must lead to results that are equally misleading, though not to so great an extent as the prior one. It requires the manufacturer

"to give the value or price charged at the factory. . . . for all products . . . whether sold or unsold."

Compliance with this requires that the manufacturer assume a profit as earned on his unsold product and credit himself therewith. Census returns are supposed to be accurate representations of existing facts, not a counting of unhatched chickens. Whose was the expert skill that devised these questions the present Director of the Census ought to be able to tell, as he was "chief statistician of the division of manufactures." Max Lowenthal.

Rochester, N. Y., September 25, 1903.

DIRECTOR RICCI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a notice of the Neapolitan journal *La Critica*, included in the "Notes" of the number of the *Nation* for June 18, Signor Corrado Ricci is spoken of as "the well-known Director of the Royal Gallery at Parma." Signor Ricci has been long enough Director of the Gallery of Brera (if one may, in imitation of the universal Milanese use, drop the article before Brera) to rearrange completely its contents and make it possible for the student to study with the greatest ease the chronological development of Lombard Art. As there is perhaps no other gallery in Europe where sequence and relations in art can be so easily understood, it might be well if some competent writer among your correspondents should furnish the *Nation* with an account of what Signor Ricci has accomplished here. His success has been such that it is said (I know not with what authority) that he is to be transferred to Florence to do a similar work there.

Very truly yours, S. K.

Alassio, September 11, 1103.

THE DECLINE OF MATHEMATICS IN ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The statement made by you in the last issue of the *Nation*, page 229, may be easily answered by quoting such important branches of mathematics as theory of numbers and modern theory of functions, which are almost entirely due to benighted Continentals. Some time ago, when the English had three eminent mathematicians left yet—a Hebrew, a half-Russian and an Irishman—they used to say that they had generals, but no soldiers, in mathematics. Now the generals are dead and no soldier has risen to the rank of general. What a well-minded Englishman thinks of the present state of mathematics in England may be inferred from Professor Greenhill's review of the German translation of Professor Perry's book, published in *Nature* about a year ago. Without the slightest intention of composing a "Sovvenire di una gran nazione" to the English people, I cannot help quoting the momentous words of Henry John Stephen Smith: "A decline in the mathematical productivity of a nation amounts to a retreat on the whole line."

Yours very respectfully, H. T.

September 17, 1903.

[Our comment will be found on another page.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston, in connection with D. B. Updike, proposes a new and elegant edition ("The Merrymount") of Jane Austen's works in sixteen volumes, 16mo. By subdivision of each novel into several volumes a large and very readable type can be used. The enterprise depends upon preliminary subscription. Mr. Goodspeed has nearly ready 'A New Year's Address to the Patrons of the *Essex Gazette*, 1828,' with a hitherto unpublished letter, by John G. Whittier. Only sixty copies will be printed.

A new edition of Fielding's works in eleven octavo volumes, with Arthur Murphy's essay on his life and genius, edited by Dr. James P. Rame of Edinburgh, will have Messrs. Scribner for the American publishers.

Harper & Bros. are about to bring out 'The Dutch Founding of New York,' by Thomas A. Janvier, beautifully illustrated; 'Hawthorne and his Circle,' by Julian Hawthorne, also illustrated; 'Portraits from the Sixties,' by Justin McCarthy; 'The Standard of Pronunciation in English,' by Prof. T. R. Lounsbury; 'The Diversions of a Book-Lover,' by Adrian H. Joline; and Lewis Carroll's 'The Hunting of the Snark,' with Peter Newell's illustrations.

Fox, Duffield & Co., New York, announce 'The Compromises of Life,' lectures and addresses by Col. Henry Watterson; 'The Shepherd's Pipe,' a collection of sixteenth and seventeenth-century verse, by Fitzroy Carrington, with old portrait illustrations;

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'Rhymes of Real Children,' by Betty Sage; and 'The First Loves of Perilla,' by John Corbin.

The "English Men of Letters" series of Macmillan Co. will be extended by Canon Ainger's Life of Crabbe, and Dr. Henry Van Dyke's Life of Lowell. From the same house will issue 'Irish Life in Irish Fiction,' by Horatio Sheafe Krans.

'The Principles of the Founders,' Boston's last Fourth of July oration, by Edwin D. Mead, is to be issued by the American Unitarian Association in that city.

Ainsworth & Co., Chicago, have in press 'The Thirty Years' War on Silver,' by Judge A. L. Fitzgerald of the Supreme Court of Nevada.

Forthcoming from the University of Chicago Press are 'A History of Matrimonial Institutions,' in three volumes, by George E. Howard; 'Animal Education,' by John B. Watson; 'Lectures on Commerce and Administration,' by J. Laurence Laughlin and others; 'The Philosophy of the History of a Small Nation' (Bohemia), by Thomas G. Masaryk of the University of Prague; 'Russian Civilization: Its Past and Present,' by Paul Milyukoff; and 'The Code of Hammurabi,' in two volumes, by Robert Francis Harper and William Rainey Harper.

The Clarendon Press (H. Frowde) has in preparation the third series of Dr. Edward Moore's 'Studies in Dante'; the fifth volume of the Oxford History of Music, 'The Romantic Period,' by Edward Dannreuther; 'Selected Drawings from Old Masters in the University Galleries and in the Library at Christ Church, Oxford,' chosen and described by Sidney Colvin; 'An Examination of the Shelley MSS. in the Bodleian Library,' by C. D. Locock; 'The Songs of Robert Burns,' printed for the first time with the melodies for which they were written, edited by James C. Dick; and 'Elizabethan Critical Essays' (1570-1603), edited by Gregory Smith, M.A., in two volumes.

Among the reprints on our table are two more volumes in J. F. Taylor & Co.'s "Library Edition" of the Novels, Poems, and Memories of Charles Kingsley, namely, 'Two Years Ago'; 'Christmas Books and Hard Times' in the "Biographical Edition" of Dickens (London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: Lippincott), with a great variety of standard illustrations by Doyle, Leech, Fred Walker, Maclise, Landseer, etc. (the chief typographical attraction of this unpretentious output); Pierre Loti's 'Madame Chrysanthème' in Laura Ensor's translation, with half-tone illustrations by Rossi and Myrbach to which less than justice has been done in the printing (London: Routledge; New York: Dutton); Elbert Hubbard's 'Little Journeys to the Homes of Famous Musicians' and likewise of 'English Authors' (Putnams), reinforced with numerous unhackneyed full-page portraits; and Charles Augustus Stoddard's 'Cruising Among the Caribbees,' revised and enlarged since 1895—but we can hardly praise the new matter about Martinique and Porto Rico (Scribners).

'The Children's Book,' edited by the late Horace E. Scudder (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), strikes the eye at once as old-fashioned. In the first place, all the illustrations in the text are woodcuts, in divers styles and after many designers, from Cruikshank to Darley and Lafarge. There was, therefore, no need to employ shiny paper for half-tone prints, and this, too, points to what for our youngsters is a prehistoric age. In fact, this cleverly compiled quarto volume dates back to 1881. Perhaps its appearance, in contrast with smart "process" manufacture, has kept it from holding its own in the nursery. A few inserted plates of photographic origin we judge to be the publishers' latter-day concession to a changed (not a better) taste. Be this as it may, there is no reason why this collection should ever fall into the background. It ranges from Homer's fables to Æsop; from Aladdin to Cinderella; from Gulliver to Baron Munchausen; from Goldsmith to Hans Christian Andersen. There is, further, much good poetry—Jane Taylor, Scott, Wordsworth, Macaulay, Robert Browning, Longfellow; "Robin Hood" and "Sir Patrick Spens" among the ballads. In short, this is a rich and handy thesaurus for reading aloud or to the childish self.

In 'Masterpieces of Latin Literature' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) Prof. G. J. Laing of the University of Chicago has collected translations by various hands of typical selections from seventeen poets and prose writers, from Terence to Apuleius. A brief biographical sketch is prefixed to each author, and to the whole an heroic attempt to give in nine pages an outline of the general tendencies of Latin literature. The selections are well made, the translations are as good as any that were available, and from the book those who are so unhappy as not to know Latin may obtain a fair idea of the contents if not of the form of the originals.

Jules Cambon's 'Essays and Addresses' (D. Appleton & Co.) relate mainly to France and the United States. The essays are two in number, one on Pierre Loti, and the other on "Diplomacy and the Development of International Law." There are eight addresses, delivered at New York, Boston, and other American cities; of these the public had at the time of their delivery more or less full reports in the daily newspapers. They are interesting as a graceful contribution to international comity. M. Cambon, having shown his ability as a diplomat here, at a trying time, was peculiarly fitted for the task of explaining France to America. He particularly insists on one point which we are too often inclined to forget—that the "scrofulous French novel," with which Paris has teemed for the last fifty years, is representative of the country only to those whose tastes it suits. It is not what made France "la grande nation," nor what makes French literature and history of perennial interest. What really does this is well described by M. Cambon in these pages.

Poets and poetasters desirous of the immortality of preservation, at least, would do well to consider the aim of the curator of the Harris Collection of American Poetry in the library of Brown University. He seeks, as we learn from the *Library Journal* for September, "to obtain by purchase or gift the entire yearly output of American poetry." But the fund at his disposal is very limited.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for September contains an account of the mineral resources of the United States, by Mr. C. Kirchhoff, in which is condensed a large number of interesting facts and statistics. After detailing briefly the achievements of the past thirty years, this writer calls attention to the fact that they have been accompanied by some serious abuses. Chief among those is that, "in the rush to get rich, we have deliberately followed the principle that it pays to waste." To check the enormous waste, he sugests that there be some Government control over the mining industry; and also that titles to mining property on the public domain should contain some provision for their surrender as the penalty for long-continued idleness. Among the remaining contents are the journal of a Spanish expedition into Texas in 1675, translated from an old manuscript, and a short account of the gardening done by the International Polar Expedition at Point Barrow, Alaska, in 1882. "Twenty-seven days after seeding, and nineteen days after germination, harvesting began."

The researches of Mr. R. T. Günther into the earth-movements in the Bay of Naples, the results of which are given in the *Geographical Journal* for September, have brought to light many facts interesting to the geologist, archæologist, and historian. Among other things, they have made clear what has been a matter of doubt, that the phenomenon has not been local, but has affected large areas of adjacent Italy. They have further shown that the upward movements of the land in recent geologic times have been much in excess of the downward. The evidence is strong that the land must have stood at least 17 feet higher in Roman times, and then have sunk to something like 18 or 20 feet below its present level, and afterwards, probably in the earlier part of the sixteenth century, have come up. The well-known artist and traveller, J. G. Millais, contributes a short account of some explorations in central Newfoundland, and Professor Élisée Reclus, in a paper on geographical education, emphasizes the importance of the use of globes in teaching. He even goes so far as to say that "in all well-conducted schools . . . children ought to be entirely forbidden the use of maps." This number contains, besides, an account of Sir John Murray's bathymetrical survey of the freshwater lochs of Scotland, illustrated by photographs and maps.

The German archæological expedition to Babylon, which was at first disappointing in the small number of inscriptions discovered, has now struck "pay dirt," and has in recent months unearthed a mass of cuneiform tablets. Most of these are of a date belonging to the Persian and Greek periods. Dr. Weissbach, who has been examining the finds, reports descriptions of the sacrificial worship of the Babylonians, together with a full cosmogony. Even more fortunate have been the diggings in the ancient city of Fara, where tablets have been discovered that probably date back to the fourth millennium B. C.

On the initiative of Professor Wolfstieg, a regular institution for the education of women librarians has been opened in Berlin. The course of study has been officially approved by the Prussian Cultus Ministry. It is called the Bibliothekarinnen-Schule, and is to constitute the beginning of a Frauenhochschule für den Bibliothekdienst, the whole really under the control of the Comenius-Gesellschaft, which has recently undertaken the reorganization of the whole library system in Berlin, and has incidentally established the new school.

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The entering class numbers eleven women. Full accounts of this innovation are to be found in the reports of the Society (Vol. XI., p. 33), from the pen of Professor Wolfstieg.

Carl Frederick Bricka, keeper of the Public Records of Denmark and editor of the Danish Biographical Dictionary, died in Copenhagen on August 24. He was born in Copenhagen July 10, 1845. After eleven years' service in the Royal Library, he entered the department of records under the famous historian, A. D. Jörgenson, whom he succeeded on the latter's death in 1897. After preparations extending over many years, Bricka began in 1887 the publication of the Biographical Dictionary, the sixteenth volume of which has already appeared. The assignment of material for the remaining volumes had been made by the editor before his death, so that the original plan of his *magnum opus* will be followed, although the master's hand will be sorely missed in carrying out the details.

—New Yorkers will learn with considerable interest, from the October *Scribner's*, just what becomes of the miscellaneous refuse turned over every day to the Street-Cleaning Department, ranging from the crumbs of the dinner-table to cast-off clothing, stoves, bedsteads, etc. Formerly it was dumped miscellaneously into the bay, to pollute the water and air, or wash up in offensive heaps upon the beach. It is now carefully assorted, and the great bulk of it made to yield some return to the city, direct or indirect, against the cost of its removal. The coal ashes are rapidly making new land of the shoals about Riker's Island, worth $10,000 per acre at a fair estimate, while the ashes from incinerated vegetable matter, rich in plant food, are going to feed the famishing trees and shrubs of Central Park. Keen-eyed dealers are paying the city more than $100,000 yearly for the privilege of picking over the solid rubbish for articles of value, and the vegetable and animal matter collected from garbage receptacles yields large quantities of merchantable oil and fertilizing materials. All this may not strictly belong to belles-lettres, but it makes excellent reading-matter for New Yorkers just at present. Brooks Adams presents a narrative of his grandmother, Mrs. John Quincy Adams, describing her journey from St. Petersburg to Paris, whither she went to join her husband shortly after the signing of the treaty of 1814. The paper is preceded by a reproduction of a miniature of Mrs. Adams now in the possession of Mrs. Henry Parker Quincy of Boston. Walter A. Wyckoff writes of certain phases of trades unionism, the burden of his thought being that the movement is the inevitable result of changed conditions, and is, on the whole, highly beneficial to all concerned, notwithstanding various palpably wrong positions into which the unions have been led. His argument that the effect of unionism is to increase the efficiency of the individual workman, by driving the employer to seek for the best labor available at the uniform rate of wages, is somewhat hard to follow. Will H. Low, in the "Field of Art," gives several pages of counsel to the American art student in Paris. He advises the student to seek the Government schools rather than the ateliers established by private enterprise, and especially to avoid those in which American students congregate in such numbers as to give predominance to ideals and methods brought from home. Learn the language, go to the root of things, and yield not to the temptation of the publisher who would draw you into the remunerative but artistically fatal work of present-day popular illustration.

—The October *Century* makes a special appeal to the sportsman. André Castaigne describes a hunting expedition of President Faure, in company with the Grand Duke Alexis and a few others, in the thickets of Rambouillet. Five hundred and thirty rabbits, a hundred and nineteen pheasants, ninety-one hares, three roebucks, and two squirrel, the sum of this day's shooting, will suggest to many readers a day in a slaughter-house rather than a day of legitimate sport. J. M. Gleeson describes the game parks of Powerscourt and Drummond Castle. Sterling Heilig writes of the Duchesse d'Uzès, who rents from the French republic more than ninety square miles of the Rambouillet forest, in addition to her own extensive hunting-grounds. With more than eleven hundred stags to her account, she may well be called "the first huntress of France," but the instinct of true sportsmanship revolts at such numbers. It is just this unrestrained desire to be killing that gives to another contributor, Dwight W. Huntington, material for a gloomy sketch of the rapid diminution, in many cases practical extinction, of the game birds and animals of the United States. L. O. Howard contributes a short but extremely interesting sketch of the investigations which have established the culpability of the mosquito as the chief, if not the only, agent in the distribution of yellow fever. Anna Bowman Dodd writes in glowing terms of the "New Woman in Turkey."

—Captain Sumph himself, whom Pendennis met at his first literary dinner at Bungay's, never told more inconsequent anecdotes than are to be found in the memoirs of another captain, one George Elers (London: Heinemann; New York: Appletons). Again like Sumph, Elers was "related in some indistinct way to the peerage," and the MS. of his Memoirs has reposed for years in the library of Lord Monson, who now gives it to a world that needed it not. The writer went out to India as an ensign in the Twelfth Foot in 1796, and stayed there eight or nine years (dates are hardly ever given), during which time he seems to have been under fire once. To have "a good billiard table, a good regimental library, and excellent shooting and hunting," was apparently his professional ideal, and he speaks of a week of racing and chicken hazard as the happiest he ever passed in India. During three months he was entertained, when invalided, by Col. Wellesley at Seringapatam, but this hospitality he ill repays by frequent innuendo of a personal and trivial kind. It is obvious that in later years he made himself a bore to the Duke by presuming on this early acquaintance to ask for favors which his services had not merited. After his return from India he spent some years at home stations, but finally left the army in 1812 to please, as he fondly hoped, a mother-in-law *in posse*. The old lady very promptly and wisely refused her blessing to a son-in-law who *in esse* had not even a captain's pay; and for the rest of his life he lived as best he could, paying visits, and finally ending as the pensioner of a female cousin. The memoir is, in fact, the common tale of an earthen pot trying to swim with the brass kettle, and getting sadly knocked about. In an appendix, however, there are some rather interesting letters from Maria Edgeworth, another cousin of this harmless and unnecessary man.

—The *Nation* of December 13, 1900, noticed the appointment by Gen. Porter, United States Ambassador to France, of a committee, consisting of Henri Méron, consul of France at Chicago; E. P. McLean, Vice-Consul-General of the United States at Paris; Col. Chaillé-Long, and Major H. A. Huntington, to compose a list of the French officers, soldiers, and sailors who took part in the War of American Independence. This committee, to which M. Lacour-Gayet, professor at the École Supérieure de la Marine, was added in January, 1901, has completed its work, and the result appears in a huge quarto volume entitled: 'Les Combattants Français de la Guerre Américaine, 1778-1783: Listes établies d'après les documents authentiques déposées aux Archives Nationales et aux Archives du Ministère de la Guerre, publiées par les soins du Ministère des Affaires Étrangères' (Paris: Ancienne Maison Quantin, pp. xii., 327). Besides the names, it contains portraits of Washington, Lafayette, Rochambeau, Vergennes, D'Estaing, De Grasse, and De Guichen; the vote of thanks passed by the General Society of the S. A. R. to all concerned in the publication, with individual mention; and an introduction by M. Méron, giving due credit to his collaborators. The edition is of eight hundred copies, of which four hundred have been presented to the United States Government. The remainder will be divided by the Ministries of Public Instruction, War, and Marine, at whose joint expense the work was printed, and will be distributed by them among the great public libraries of France. These lists, which may be advantageously consulted by all students of our Revolutionary period, have a special value for readers of that extremely interesting work: 'Marins et Soldats Français en Amérique pendant la Guerre de l'Indépendance des États-Unis' (Paris: Perrin & Cie., 1903), by the Vicomte de Noailles, a great-grandson of the illustrious soldier of that name who concluded the capitulation of Yorktown.

—It is not only with the Indian East, as was set forth recently in these columns by Professor Lanman, that Western students have now come into touch, nor is it only at the feet of native Sanskritists that they can now sit. In spite of the fear of an uncrossable gulf of prejudice and fanaticism, the world of Muslim theology is also opening its doors to the West, and the Ulama of the Azhar in Cairo have shown themselves willing to receive in the circles which sit round them inquirers from among the unbelievers, and have thus claimed for their school a place in the broad freedom of academic comity. The greatness of this revolution and its far-reaching effects, for both Islam and Christianity, are clear; for Islam, perhaps, more immediately deep and essential. For the West—though such a world of contemporary thought and emotion certainly cannot for long lie open without results of

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stimulus and suggestion—the first fruits of the change must be more objective and simply scientific. Islam will come to be understood by us more perfectly when it can be studied not alone in its books from the past, but as its present teachers interpret and hold it. This is the great interest in Dr. A. de Vlieger's 'Kitab al Qadr: Matériaux pour servir à l'étude de la doctrine de la prédestination dans la théologie musulmane' (Leyden). The "matériaux" here presented, partly in the original text and throughout in translation, are indeed of very considerable value, being drawn largely from MS. sources, but of greater value is Dr. de Vlieger's statement of the theological positions of the present day, and of the interpretations which Muslims now give to their doctrines.

—The only pity is that he did not definitely put himself to school with them and work resolutely through their course of studies. Scholastic theology is a thing by itself and can not be caught in a moment by any intuition. So, that he has not grasped fundamentally the Muslim system is plain on page 6, where a passage is given in text and translation, but with the point completely missed and some technicalities wrongly rendered. A similar weakness is shown in handling the distinction between *qadā* and *qadar*, the two words for predestination in Arabic. On another side, his Muslim teachers seem to have had too great an influence. Professedly in this account we are placed on the present-day platform of Muslim orthodoxy; no reckoning is made with different schools nor with heretical divergencies. Such a plan is excellent; a book so constructed would give us a much needed point of departure. But Dr. de Vlieger has mixed in material of a different kind, drawn from European sources, and has done so without a word that it is not modern orthodoxy. Thus, apart from a distinction between the position of Mohammed himself and the Mohammedan Church, there is no suggestion here of any process of change or development, for good or for evil. The statements of the straitest theologians, of mystics of varying orthodoxy, and of absolute philosophers like Averroes, are thrown together without an attempt to indicate a difference or to trace a genetic relationship. It would, for example, be interesting to know with what degrees of horror the Cairo theologians view Averroes, the Neoplatonic Aristotelian, and Abd ar-Razzaq, the Neoplatonic sufi—that is, if they have even heard of them—and what proportion of them regard al-Ghazzali as a Father of the Church. But, for all this, Dr. de Vlieger's work is a refreshing witness to the renewed intercourse of East and West.

RECIPROCITY.

Reciprocity. By J. Laurence Laughlin, Ph.D., Professor of Political Economy in the University of Chicago, and H. Parker Willis, Ph.D., Professor of Economics and Political Science in Washington and Lee University. The Baker & Taylor Co. Pp. 583.

The authors of this work have given us a detailed history of the moments in our later tariff history in which the idea of reciprocity has played a rôle. The volume is therefore a much needed and most welcome addition to the all too scanty tariff literature which can make any pretence to scientific insight and accuracy. Its appearance is most timely, also, at this juncture, when widespread interest in an important phase of reciprocity has been aroused by Mr. Chamberlain's assault upon free trade in Great Britain under the guise of preferential duties.

The origin of reciprocity is traced in the introductory chapter to the mutual concessions made by various nations in respect of their navigation laws, when it became recognized about a century ago that these laws were defeating the very ends for which they had been enacted. The formation of the German Zollverein and the rising tide in Europe making for unfettered commerce extended the scope of reciprocal concessions to the tariff duties imposed upon the goods of international trade. Commercial treaties incorporating "the most-favored-nation" clause were the principal means of contracting the area of high-tariff depression. The description of modern reciprocity systems, particularly those of Germany and France, affords, when taken in conjunction with a subsequent chapter on "Reciprocity and the Sugar Situation," a good insight into the current tariff policies of the leading European States. It is to be regretted that the authors could not devote more space to tracing the modern reaction against commercial freedom. They ascribe the tendency most briefly to the increased need for revenue for war and armament following upon the Franco-Prussian war.

The series of chapters which elucidate our various reciprocity treaties with Canada, with Hawaii, with South American countries, and abortively with Cuba, are well done, and the generalizations one may readily draw are eminently sobering. On the whole the history of these experiments teaches that the general interests of consumers as a body—so well subserved, for example, by Canadian reciprocity—have been generally subordinated either to the private interests of small groups of producers, or to vague national animosities or ambitions.

Not the least merit in the work is its exposure of the change in the reciprocity idea in our tariff since 1890. The species of reciprocity which Mr. Blaine at the last moment foisted on the McKinley bill was in reality a threat of tariff retaliation upon countries exporting tropical products to the United States unless those countries should abate their tariffs on our exports of foodstuffs and manufactured goods. But, despite the retaliatory aspect of the McKinley tariff, it stood four square to perfectly orthodox protectionism. At that time the only kind of reciprocity sanctioned by uncompromising protectionists, and believed to be free from any taint of revenue reform or free trade, had to conform to three tests. First, it could contemplate free admission only of products not coming into competition with products of this country; second, it must imply a contemporaneous willingness in the foreign country to take the surplus of our farms and factories; and, third, it must involve an approximately equal volume of trade with the foreign country in the two kinds of products exchanged. Upon the passage of the Wilson bill, the reciprocal engagements with other countries practically became of no effect. As the Wilson bill was originally reported, raw sugar was to continue to be admitted free, as under the McKinley act; but the manipulation of the sugar schedules in the Senate imposed a duty on raw sugar, and thus practically annihilated the basis of reciprocity agreements founded upon the free admission of sugar. The Dingley tariff did not revert to the free-sugar provision of the McKinley act, but put both raw sugar and hides on the dutiable list. This practically destroyed the basis for such reciprocity as had existed under the McKinley act, although formal homage is still done to the shade of that idea in our present tariff law. The Dingley bill, however, provided, at least formally, two other kinds of reciprocity. A few selected articles, of relatively small importance and so chosen as hardly to compete with any domestic product, are entered at certain reduced rates of duty whenever and so long as the President is satisfied that equivalent reciprocal concessions have been extended to us by the nations exporting the articles above mentioned. This is a slight departure from the earlier type of reciprocity. But the Dingley bill also sanctioned the negotiation of reciprocity treaties providing for a five-year abatement of tariff duties equal to 20 per cent. of the regular tariff rates. The treaties so negotiated are subject to Congressional approval before going into effect. This was theoretically a direct breach with reciprocity of the strictly orthodox type; but the fate of the treaties negotiated by Mr. Kasson seems to substantiate the contention of this work that this last kind of reciprocity is purely of the buncombe order. The earlier type harmonized strictly with the protective creed, and went immediately into effect. The Dingley measure professes to give a broader scope to reciprocal engagements, but subjects such engagements to an indefinite delay. One promised little and did something; the other seems to promise much and does but little.

The Protean character of reciprocity is well analyzed in this volume. The estimate to be placed upon reciprocity as a fiscal policy must vary accordingly. For, first of all, reciprocity may mean a fair offer of mutual tariff concessions to all the world. This, in the diplomacy of trade, is the Retort Courteous. Or, reciprocity may take the shape of an offer of mutual tariff concessions to be reached by special bargains with each separate nation. This is the Quip Modest. Or, again, reciprocity may be so narrowed in its scope as to apply only to such imports as do not compete with home products. This response to an invitation to freer commerce is called "tropical reciprocity" or the Reply Churlish. Or, once again, reciprocity may be concluded with but a single country in a spirit of selfish exclusiveness so as to deprive all the world beside of a valued privilege. Thus, when for years Hawaii alone could lay down her sugar in this country duty free, the other sugar growers of the world, despite their solicitations, experienced from us what they must have taken for the Reproof Valiant. When, finally, reciprocity turns into a frown, and becomes a covert threat of tariff retaliation unless the foreigner makes certain specified concessions, we reach the Countercheck Quarrelsome of the McKinley tariff, from which the Lie Circumstantial of excluded commerce, and the recoil of the Lie Direct in the shape of heavy tariff burdens on

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the home consumer, are not far distant. To such a type of reciprocity as that first outlined, the free trader can but be a friend; to such as that last described the fair protectionist may well be a foe.

Owing to treaty obligations, reciprocity at its best means generally a hampering of the fiscal machinery and a weakened control over revenue. It constantly involves the danger of setting duties abnormally high in order to seem to make considerable abatements when reciprocity is once concluded with other nations. It often means a loss in revenue, as in the case of Hawaiian sugar prior to 1894, without any gain whatever to the consumer in the matter of price. Moreover, it is but seldom that a great industrial nation like the United States can, by reciprocal arrangements, ensconce itself in a coign of vantage analogous to that occupied by the Hawaiian sugar grower. His exceptional profit was due to the fact that he could produce only a fraction of the supply, and could market it under conditions giving him an exceptional profit. The most usual gains derivable from reciprocity are attenuated copies of those obtainable with fewer delays and difficulties from tariff reform.

The unfavorable criticisms to be passed on the book before us are two in number. It assumes a tone of non-judicial censoriousness whenever the motives of Congress are mentioned; and it affords too scanty evidence of perhaps its most important generalization, to wit, the effectiveness of threatened reprisals as a means of securing tariff concessions. A perusal of the volume will substantiate the former criticism abundantly, and makes an unfavorable contrast to the severe impartiality of Taussig's tariff history. On page 426 it is stated that "the result of duties levied by a free-trade country in the way already described [*i. e.*, by threatened reprisals to provoke counter-concessions] almost uniformly leads to the enforcement of similar duties in return, and a tariff war results." It is not at all impossible that this may be the case. But, if so, it is transcendently important that every available scrap of evidence be cited in proof, for evidently this point is the crux of the whole contention between free trade and fair trade. This assemblage of evidence is neglected, and the proposition consequently carries only the force of an *ipse dixit*.

The book is written in a uniform, matter-of-fact style which does not readily allow one to guess at the respective shares of the two authors. The appendixes are full and valuable, and include in one hundred and forty pages a complete bibliography, the text of important reciprocity treaties, recent revenue acts, as well as pertinent commercial statistics. A misleading error on page 472 gives 1891 instead of 1894 as the date when certain reciprocity treaties were terminated. It is to be regretted that the charts of variations in exports and imports, etc., are not more clear. The diagrams are well devised to impair the eyesight.

BOOKS ON MUSIC AND MUSICIANS.

Hugo Wolf. Von Michael Haberlandt. Leipzig: Lauterbach & Kuhn.

Schumann. By Annie W. Patterson. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

Forty Songs by Johannes Brahms. Edited by James Huneker. Oliver Ditson Co.

Technique of Musical Expression. By Albert Gérard-Thiers. New York: Theodore Rebla Publishing Co.

Hugo Wolf wrote about two hundred songs, none of which have as yet become widely known in this country. Nor is this strange, even if his biographer be right in maintaining that he was the greatest of modern lyric composers and second only to Schubert, for his works did not begin to be made public in Austria and Germany until about ten years ago, and a decade is only a minute in the life of such exalted works as these are claimed to be. Is not Robert Franz only just beginning to be appreciated at his full value, sixty years after his first volume of songs was printed? So Wolf's day may come, even if he is not, as Herr Haberlandt implies, superior to Schumann, Liszt, Franz, Jensen, Grieg, MacDowell, and all the others who have followed in Schubert's footsteps. That he was a composer of unusual originality is certain, and it is the æsthetic duty of our concert singers to make their audiences familiar with his best songs without further delay. It must be admitted that he was himself largely responsible for the tardy appreciation of his art, for, like Franz, he was so unwise and unmodern as to object to his personality being made a topic for journalistic paragraphers. "When I shall have ceased to compose," he once said, "no one need bother about me any more." It is well that his friend paid no attention to this semi-mandate; his short story of Hugo Wolf's sad life will help to call to his works the attention they deserve. It was Haberlandt who first suggested the formation of the Hugo Wolf Societies which were founded in Berlin and Vienna in 1896-97. To these Wolf did not object, as they were to be concerned not with himself, but with his works; and it is to these that we owe the publication of three volumes of collected articles on his songs and his opera "Der Corregidor," which is to be produced in Vienna the coming winter, after having been successfully performed at Graz and in several German cities.

Like three other eminent composers—Donizetti, Schumann, and Smetana—Hugo Wolf passed the last years of his life in a lunatic asylum, to which, one cannot help thinking after reading his biography, his own folly brought him. Haberlandt notes with satisfaction that his hero did not share the belief that long, unkempt hair and slouchy, spotted apparel are necessary concomitants of genius; it would have been well if he could have added that Wolf had also emancipated himself from the idea that men of genius need pay no attention to the laws of health. That he often took insufficient food was his misfortune rather than his fault; there was no sale for his works, and for some years he had to eke out a livelihood by writing criticisms for one of the minor Viennese newspapers; but for his neglect of sleep and other necessaries of health there was no excuse. While he was absorbed in a task, he allowed himself no time for rest or meals, and it was the strain on his vitality caused by his frenzied work on a new opera ("Manuel Venegas"), in midsummer, without a pause, that led to his breakdown. He had invited his friends to meet him and hear him play what he had written of this score, and what happened at this hearing was so gruesome that our author draws a veil over it.

Wolf's abnormal emotionalism made him the easier victim of overwork. "I have not the courage," he once wrote to a friend, "to compose an opera, because I am afraid of the many ideas necessary. Ideas, dear friend, are terrible. I feel it. My cheeks glow from excitement like molten iron, and this condition of inspiration is to me an enchanting torture, not a pure joy." When in such a state he would slam the door in the face of his best friend who happened to call inopportunely; but a few hours later, when the song was finished, he would run over to the same friend and, with tears in his eyes, play and hum it to him. He seemed to look on a new song as a child does on a present it has just received, and expressed his delight over it with sublime naïveté. In the letter cited he says: "I have just finished a new song—a song for the gods, I assure you—divine and wonderful! *Bei Gott!* It will soon be all over with me—I am growing more clever from day to day. Where will this end? It makes me shudder to think." On February 24, 1888, he writes: "Another new song! My dear, when you hear that, the devil will take you for joy." On the next day: "I am furiously busy. To-day two new songs came to me, one of which is so strangely gruesome that it frightens me. Such a thing has never been. God have mercy on those who hear it." A month later: "'Erstes Liebeslied eines Mädchens' is by far the best thing I have done so far. Compared with it, all that went before is child's play." The next day: "I take back what I said yesterday about 'Erstes Liebeslied eines Mädchens,' for what I have written to-day—'Fussreise'—is a million times better still. When you have heard this song, you can have but one more wish—to die." It should, perhaps, be borne in mind that this enthusiasm over his songs was not pure egotism. Much of it, no doubt, was caused by his almost frantic love of the poems he set to music. From his boyhood he was a greedy devourer of poetry. A volume of poems was always in his pocket, and he never lost an opportunity to read his favorites to his family and his friends. It is of such material that great song writers are made. Let us give him a trial.

It is a strange thing that up to date there is not in the English language a satisfactory biography of either Beethoven or Schumann. Beethoven will receive his dues when Thayer's life of him is printed in the original English version, which has been vainly expected for some years. Pending that event, the reader who knows English only must turn to Grove's masterful article on Beethoven in his 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians.' It is in that work also that by far the best treatise in our language on Schumann is to be found. No doubt the reason why no exhaustive monograph on Schumann has yet appeared (in any language) is that the most valuable source of information has been hitherto withheld from publicity. This source is the diary of his wife, in forty-seven quarto volumes. Their main contents have been incorporated in the first volume of Litzmann's 'Clara Schumann,'

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which, however, extends only to 1840, the year of her marriage to the great composer. Until his second volume, covering the sixteen years of her married life, is issued, no one can undertake the definitive life of Robert Schumann.

Annie Patterson, who attaches to her name the "Mus. Doc. B.A." of the Royal University of Ireland, has not made use of Litzmann's first volume, which would have enabled her to add some vivid touches to her account of Schumann's early life, especially the period of courtship. She has, however, made free use of those of his letters which were printed in two volumes a few years ago, and she duly emphasizes the fact that Schumann was almost as interesting from a literary as from a musical point of view. Her book will doubtless be read with interest, and may be commended as a first introduction to the subject; but it is far from being a model of what a short monograph should be. That there are no new facts or points of view in it is not surprising, for Schumann has been dead nearly half a century; but much better use might have been made of the available biographic material, while of critical discrimination there is little. Of the painful but undeniable fact pointed out by Hans von Bülow, that Schumann began as a genius and ended as a talent, her readers are left in blissful ignorance; she even indicates 1849 as the year when his creative powers reached their zenith! She also makes one smile by her repeated eager efforts to prove that Mendelssohn was not biassed against Schumann's music, followed by long paragraphs trying to explain this very bias. As for Schumann himself, he, unfortunately, was not biassed against Mendelssohn. His efforts to imitate that smooth but shallow composer formally, led to what Bülow aptly called his "partial artistic suicide"—a theme on which Weingartner has discoursed eloquently in his treatise 'Die Symphonie nach Beethoven.'

Schumann's last critical act was to point out Brahms as the musical Messiah (versus Wagner). In the treatise just referred to Weingartner dwells on the great assistance thus given to the launching of Brahms, and how Brahms, by taking Schumann seriously, injured himself as a composer. It would also seem as if he had, by way of showing his gratitude, chosen the empty songs of Schumann's talent-period as models for his own. However, there are undoubtedly some inspired *Lieder* among the 196 he wrote, and undoubtedly also the best forty of them have been incorporated by Mr. Huneker in his Brahms volume cited above. It has a lucid four-page preface, in which the life of Brahms is briefly told and his merits are duly emphasized. Such a volume has long been a desideratum, for the Brahms songs are at present popular, one might almost say fashionable. The publishers have given it all the advantages bestowed on previous issues of "The Musicians' Library"—good paper and binding, clear type, and excellent translations.

Mr. Gérard-Thiers holds that it is in the power of every talented student to become a true artist. He believes that temperament is not such a mysterious and inexplicable thing as it is commonly supposed to be, but that it has its laws—its technique—which can be taught; and in his treatise of 103 pages (mostly taken up with musical illustrations) he endeavors to show what the technique of expression is. He claims that the theory advanced is original with him, but we have not been able to find anything not previously brought forward by Christiani, Riemann, Lussy, Schulz, Kullak, and other writers on this subject—indeed, we are not sure but that a student of music might learn nearly as much by perusing the two columns Riemann devotes to the word *Ausdruck* in his 'Musik-Lexicon' (fifth edition) as by reading this volume, which may still be cordially welcomed. It is always a pleasure to note a teacher who pays attention to something besides the mechanical aspect of his art. The arrangement of the matter seems confused, but the individual points are well made, sometimes graphically, and no student can read this book without benefit. The examples are usually well chosen; but why continue to ascribe "Adieu" (Ex. 29) to Schubert, when Nottebohm proved long ago that it was written by Weyrauch? And why spell Gluck's name Glück? Why not Wägner or Schümänn? On page 28 Mozart's "Dove sono" is printed "Dore sono," both in the heading and in the text.

Submarine Navigation, Past and Present. By Alan H. Burgoyne, F.R.G.S. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 2 vols., pp. xiv., 341; xii, 363. 1903.

That man will eventually achieve the conquest of the waters under the earth, and that he will be able to go and come and stay therein, practically at will, cannot be doubted if the pertinacity of past ages and the undiminishing enthusiasm of the present century may be appealed to as proof that the more difficult a problem, the more certain and complete the ultimate solution. This, or a kindred reflection, arises in the mind as we open the handsome volumes of Mr. Burgoyne's 'Submarine Navigation,' in which clear print, marginal headings, copious illustrations, and a fair index combine to attract the reader and to hold his attention. No matter what be his prepossessions as to the subject of the work, he will be grateful, at least, for the first volume, in which the history of the attempts to live and move beneath the surface of the seas is given chronologically, at length, and with commendable wealth of bibliography. It forms in itself so excellent a treatise that it may well be called invaluable. From the psychological standpoint this record is of exceptional interest, presenting as it does a bewildering variety of invention, the trial of many ideas, all ingenious and some fantastic, the gradual winnowing out of the impracticable, the survival of the simple and rational, and a general advance towards the desired goal.

And what is that goal? Undoubtedly, the destruction of an enemy's vessel is the chief and undisguised end sought after by the Bushnells, Fultons, Nordenfeldts, and Hollands of all times, and yet it is not beyond the range of possibility that the submarine vessel may prove a potent factor in the world's industrial progress, and, like gunpowder and nitroglycerine, find a wider field of usefulness in the arts of peace than in the operations of war. As explosives have wrought wonders for mankind in mining, tunnelling, and quarrying, so may boats like Lake's *Argonaut* open up unexplored regions of the ocean's floor, which are vast even within the limits of water shallow enough to permit the diver and the diving craft to work along the bottom. Under the heads of Submarine Wrecking; Recovering Gold from River and Sea-Coast Bottoms; Coral, Pearl, or Sponge Fisheries; Laying Submarine Foundations; Scientific and Pleasure Boats, Part IV. deals with this peaceful phase of submarine navigation in an extremely interesting manner.

Nearly one-half of the second volume is devoted to the Holland boat, the most successful and promising type thus far developed. This chapter, by the way, contains much unnecessary and irrelevant matter which a wise editing would have omitted to advantage. The sections of Part VI. (Theory of the Submarine Boat) which deal with Submersion, Stability, Form, Direction, Habitability, Motive Power, etc., are those to which the student will naturally turn. Some of them are admirable, and all are too short. They touch upon the very crux of the whole matter, and they deserve greater attention at the hands of so well equipped a writer as Mr. Burgoyne. He has given to them all only as many pages as to the subject of Armament and Explosives. In Part VII. Mr. Burgoyne discusses the military value of the submarine in the cheery vein of the optimist, basing his arguments upon the assumption that the submarine will do the very things which inventors have for generations been endeavoring in vain to make it do, and forgetting that he had already written, "No doubt some efficient means of seeing when submerged will be evolved, but it must be confessed that it is this matter that retards the progress of submarine navigation more than anything else."

Nevertheless, the submarine is a fearsome thing, almost justifying Chief Constructor Cuniberti's belief that she need carry no torpedoes, as her appearance alone would suffice "to make an enemy turn tail and fly!" The book ends with a symposium of expressions, favorable and unfavorable, by distinguished writers on military subjects, and by naval officers, chiefly British, which proves the author's sincerity of purpose and greatly increases the value of a very welcome addition to the literature of the naval profession.

James Madison. By Gaillard Hunt. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1903.

Mr. Hunt has accomplished a difficult task remarkably well. Madison left voluminous records of his many public services, but carefully destroyed those covering the most interesting phase of his career, when he was becoming a strong partisan—a step that led to the Presidency, but narrowed and warped his judgment of men and public questions. The member of the Continental Congress and the Constitutional Convention was a very different man from the member of the House of Representatives, the unquestioning follower of Jefferson, and the weak President. His true position was that of a recorder of events; as such, he is the best source extant of Virginia policy during his long and varied career. His minutes of the debates in the Constitutional Convention will always rank as his best work. In action he was timid, and too much under the influence of others and of his own doubts to succeed. The measures most closely connected with his name are those affecting religious freedom in Vir-

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ginia, and the Virginia Resolutions of 1798. The one destroyed a prop necessary to the existence of the Virginia aristocracy, and thus contributed to destroy the influence of the State in national affairs; the other was an interesting though somewhat futile declaration of Constitutional interpretation that equally served the purposes of the nullifiers of 1828 and of their opponents. Wide as was Madison's reading on Government, his ideas were often half formed, his arguments too refined, and his suggestions wanting in practicality. His partisanship under the fostering care of Jefferson separated him from those who would have been his natural colleagues, and weakened his undoubted powers for public usefulness. Perhaps he felt this himself, and so destroyed the records of his breach with the Federalists. As Secretary of State he was bound by Jefferson's theory of peace at any cost, and as President he inherited the results of the downfall of that theory, and experienced such failures in actual war as should have ruined his reputation as an administrator.

In most of these aspects of Madison's career Mr. Hunt is not a blind admirer; he admits the errors of judgment and the inability to judge of men, which brought together so weak a Cabinet and permitted so much discord among its members. With a tendency to overestimate Madison's initiative in legislation, Mr. Hunt does not blink or justify his resort to scurrilous journalists or political tactics but little defensible. Overlooking Madison's essay on Neutral Rights, Mr. Hunt gives an interesting extract from a fragment by Madison showing that slavery is incompatible with democracy. Mr. Hunt has also dwelt on the subject of patronage and its abuse under Jefferson, and on nullification in South Carolina, topics well deserving the space given to them. He has studied with care original sources of material, and a high degree of accuracy is maintained throughout the book. *Corbett* for *Cobbett* is the worst of the few errors. It is the best life we have of Madison, and a decided improvement on former biographies.

Italy and the Italians. By Edward Hutton. E. P. Dutton & Co.

This is a volume such as one gladly sees, well printed on good paper, with clear illustrations, all from familiar Alinari photographs. The author loves his Italy and is not devoid of intelligence, so that his pages may be read with pleasure, though one would be slow to call the work successful. There are chapters on United Italy, Il Papa-Re, The House of Savoy, The Socialists and Literature (which for Mr. Hutton means chiefly the writings of Gabriele d'Annunzio); also upon the cities of Italy, upon half-a-dozen topics chosen rather capriciously out of the innumerable phases of Italian life, and an appendix with an itinerary for the hurried tourist, and slight notes on education, the political system, the army and navy. There are a good many clever things said by the way, and there are pages of delicious nonsense, relieved by occasional flashes of real eloquence, or even by passages of common sense. Mr. Hutton's practice, however, is better than his preaching: he "loves a priest, he loves a cowl," and therefore loathes the Sardinian Government in Rome; and yet, by various signs, we divine that this is only in some Pickwickian sense. Then, too, it is after having, through the entire volume, poured scorn and reviling on the tourist, that he shows himself capable of doing good to them he hates and despitefully uses, by furnishing an itinerary—Italy in eleven weeks—for the besotted herd.

In illustration of his manner—his worser, we own—here is a page taken at random. The author is writing of Venice:

"Through her streets rush the penny steamers, like horrible bacilli in the veins of one dying of a dreadful fever. They care nothing for her beauty, and are perhaps unconscious that they are destroying her, being occupied with their own thoughts, their own little life. Within her palaces, innumerable and splendid, the canvases that reflect her ancient beauty and magnificence decay, too, and fade under the glances of the vulgar and foolish tourist. For how long has she asked in vain who will defend Beauty, Beauty distressed now as never before, despised and rejected by the vulgar and barbarous century that has been captured by lust of gold and sensuality and ugliness? I at least have no words to express my contempt, my hatred, and my despair of a world that has destroyed so fair a thing. I hate how bitterly, how ineffectually, these bestial multitudes that, without understanding or knowledge, are trampling Beauty down beneath their million hoofs. Ah, how shall I tell, without an emotion that in a despicable, vile world of mechanics will seem ridiculous, all my loathing, all my horror! O Demos, King of kings, Lord of lords, the only Ruler of princes, thou who hast in thy turn conquered, thou also in thy turn shalt die, despicably die at last, and men shall laugh together and be glad," etc., etc.

We strongly suspect Mr. Hutton of not being yet thirty years old; we trust that the case is not worse than that.

The Flower Beautiful. By Clarence Moores Weed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903.

The aim of Mr. Weed's rather pretentious book is to advocate a more general and discriminating use of flowers in the decoration of the house, and especially of the schoolroom, where flowers, even better than pictures, would serve to educate the eye to beauty of form and harmony of color. Several of the articles included have already been published in the *House Beautiful*, and in *Art Education*. Our author inveighs against the old-fashioned way of making compact masses of flowers of every kind into the nosegay or bouquet, but in the prevailing enthusiasm for gardening which pervades all classes, flowers receive a great deal of attention and preserve their identity far more than when they were relegated to the choice of the gardener, so that, when gathered, each bloom is appreciated according to its importance.

Mr. Weed acknowledges his indebtedness to Japanese methods in much that he teaches—for instance, simplicity of background for flowers arranged in vases, the form of vases for long-stemmed flowers and branches, the keeping each kind of flower by itself, or grouping at most two different flowers or two colors together, and showing as much as possible the growth of flowers and leaves. He very justly advises the use of flowers and branches from our own woods, fields, and gardens for decoration, rather than buying exotics and forced flowers out of season from shops. In this, also, he conforms to Japanese customs: we are told that in Japan it would be regarded as equally out of place to use summer flowers in winter for decoration as to wear winter clothes in summer.

There are plentiful illustrations of Mr. Weed's floral arrangements, with suggestions as to combinations of color in flowers and vases, and advices as to the different kinds of pottery, Oriental and indigenous, fittest for use. We doubt whether the book will be of any great help, for all matters of decoration depend on individual taste and feeling. It contains much which is obvious, and all that is of use could have been said in one chapter if Mr. Weed had not chosen to repeat himself so frequently and had preferred a less precious manner of expression.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ainger, A. Crabbe. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan. 75c.
American Jewish Year Book. 5664. Biographical Sketches of Rabbis and Cantors. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Aristotle on Education. Translated by John Burnet. Cambridge (England): The University Press; New York: The Macmillan Co. 60c.
Barbour, Ralph H. Weatherby's Inning. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20 net.
Brackett, Jeffrey R. Supervision and Education in Charity. The Macmillan Co. $1.
Correspondence of William I. and Bismarck. Translated by J. A. Ford. 2 vols. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $4 net.
Crosby, Ernest H. Tolstoy and his Message. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 50c. net.
Dewey, John. Studies in Logical Theory. University of Chicago Press. $2.50 net.
Dinsmore, Charles A. Aids to the Study of Dante. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.
Gladden, Washington. Witnesses of the Light. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 net.
Griffis, William E. John Chambers. Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus & Church.
Hall, Ruth. The Pine Grove. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hopkins, John W., and Underwood, P. H. Mental Arithmetic. The Macmillan Co.
Hopkins, John W., and Underwood, P. H. The Elements of Arithmetic. The Macmillan Co.
Irving, Washington. Oliver Goldsmith. Edited by Gilbert Sykes Blakely. The Macmillan Co. 25c.
Jackson, Gabrielle E. Three Graces. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25 net.
Johnson, Francis. Famous Assassinations of History. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Knox, Prof. G. W. The Direct and Fundamental Proofs of the Christian Religion. Scribners. $1.20.
Locke, W. J. Where Love Is. John Lane.
Lodge, Henry Cabot. The Story of the Revolution. Scribners. $3.
Loti, Pierre. Ramuntcho. Edited by C. Fontaine. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Lyford, James O. History of Concord, New Hampshire (1725-1900). 2 vols. Concord.
Macaulay, T. B. Life of Samuel Johnson. Edited by William Schuyler. The Macmillan Co. 25c.
Makin, Richard L. The Beaten Path. The Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Mitchell, Wesley C. A History of the Greenbacks. University of Chicago Press. $4.50 net.
Osbourne, Lloyd. Love, the Fiddler. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Packard, Winthrop. The Young Ice-Whalers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.20 net.
Patterson, Alice J. The Spinner Family. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Phillips, David G. The Master Rogue. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Rhoades, Nina. Silver Linings. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Rowland, Henry C. Sea Scamps. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Sangster, Margaret E. Eleanor Lee. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Scollard, Clinton. Count Falcon of the Eyrie. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Smith, Nicholas. Songs from the Hearts of Women. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Smith, W. R. South Carolina as a Royal Province: 1719-1776. The Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Stanwood, Edward. American Tariff Controversies in the Nineteenth Century. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5 net.
Stoddard, William O. The Spy of Yorktown. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25 net.
Sweetser, Kate D. Micky of the Alley. D. Appleton & Co.
The Pipe Roll of the Bishopric of Winchester, 1208-1209. (Studies in Economics and Political Science; edited by W. A. S. Hewins.) London: P. S. King & Son. 15s. net.
Tooley, Sarah A. Royal Palaces and their Memories. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: A. Wessels Co.
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Ward, Edward G. The Rational Method in Reading. Fifth Reader. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Watanna, Onoto. The Heart of Hyacinth. Harpers. $2 net.
Weyman, Stanley J. The Long Night. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
White, Eliza O. Leslie Chilton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Yeats, W. B. In the Seven Woods. The Macmillan Co. $1.
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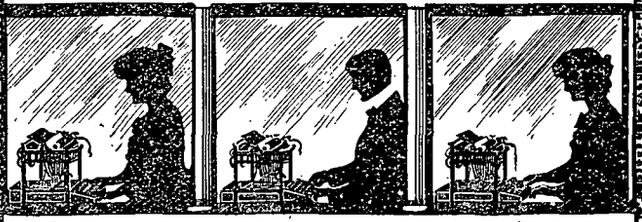

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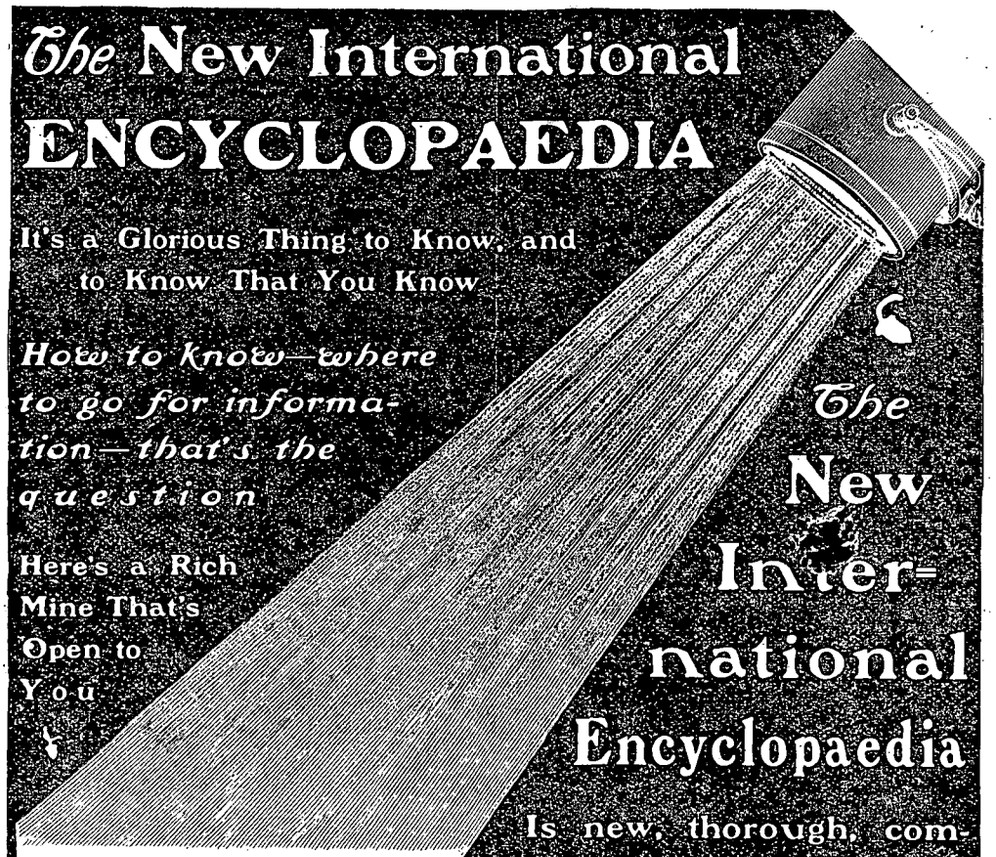

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